This is a digital copy of a book that was preserved for generations on library shelves before it was carefully scanned by Google as part of a project to make the world's books discoverable online.

It has survived long enough for the copyright to expire and the book to enter the public domain. A public domain book is one that was never subject to copyright or whose legal copyright term has expired. Whether a book is in the public domain may vary country to country. Public domain books are our gateways to the past, representing a wealth of history, culture and knowledge that's often difficult to discover.

Marks, notations and other marginalia present in the original volume will appear in this file - a reminder of this book's long journey from the publisher to a library and finally to you.

Usage guidelines

Google is proud to partner with libraries to digitize public domain materials and make them widely accessible. Public domain books belong to the public and we are merely their custodians. Nevertheless, this work is expensive, so in order to keep providing this resource, we have taken steps to prevent abuse by commercial parties, including placing technical restrictions on automated querying.

We also ask that you:

+ *Make non-commercial use of the files* We designed Google Book Search for use by individuals, and we request that you use these files for personal, non-commercial purposes.

+ *Refrain from automated querying* Do not send automated queries of any sort to Google's system: If you are conducting research on machine translation, optical character recognition or other areas where access to a large amount of text is helpful, please contact us. We encourage the use of public domain materials for these purposes and may be able to help.

+ *Maintain attribution* The Google "watermark" you see on each file is essential for informing people about this project and helping them find additional materials through Google Book Search. Please do not remove it.

+ *Keep it legal* Whatever your use, remember that you are responsible for ensuring that what you are doing is legal. Do not assume that just because we believe a book is in the public domain for users in the United States, that the work is also in the public domain for users in other countries. Whether a book is still in copyright varies from country to country, and we can't offer guidance on whether any specific use of any specific book is allowed. Please do not assume that a book's appearance in Google Book Search means it can be used in any manner anywhere in the world. Copyright infringement liability can be quite severe.

About Google Book Search

Google's mission is to organize the world's information and to make it universally accessible and useful. Google Book Search helps readers discover the world's books while helping authors and publishers reach new audiences. You can search through the full text of this book on the web at `http://books.google.com/`

LELAND·STANFORD·JVNIOR·VNIVERSITY

THE

MONTHLY REVIEW;

OR

LITERARY JOURNAL,

ENLARGED:

From SEPTEMBER to DECEMBER, *inclusive.*

M,DCCC,XII.

With an APPENDIX.

Μελέτη τοῦ παντός. PERIANDER.

VOLUME LXIX.

LONDON:

Sold by BECKET and PORTER, Booksellers, in Pall Mall.

M,DCCC,XII.

240162

STANFORD LIBRARY

Strahan and Preston,
Printers-Street, London.

TABLE

OF THE

TITLES, AUTHORS' NAMES, &c. of the Publications reviewed in this Volume.

N. B. For REMARKABLE PASSAGES in the *Criticisms* and *Extracts*, see the INDEX, at the End of the Volume.

☞ For the Names, also, of the Authors of new Dissertations, or other curious Papers, published in the MEMOIRS and TRANSACTIONS of the Scientific ACADEMIES at Home or on the Continent, and also for the Titles of those Dissertations, &c, of which Accounts are given in the Review,—see the *Index*, printed at the End of each Volume.

A

ACCOUNT of the Conquest of Mauritius, Page 422
Addresses, rejected, 288
Adlerjung's Tales, translated, 327
Adventures of Dick Distich, 97
——— of an Ostrich Feather, 434
Agricultural Memoirs, 322
Agriculture, See *Farey*.
Algebra, Lectures on, 204
America, Letters to the People of, 259
———, Address to Ditto, *ib.*
America, See *Inquiry*, See *Copies*.
American State-papers, 269
Amyot's Speeches and Life of Mr. Windham, 225
Anster Fair, a Poem, 432
Antiquarian and Topographical Cabinet, Vols. V—X., 208
Archæologia, Vol. XVI. 188. 393

B

Baillie's (Miss) Family Legend, 382
———'s Plays, Vol. III. *ib.*

Baldwin's Outlines of English Grammar, 211
Baltic, Description of, 471
Bareith, Margravine of, her Memoirs, 73
Barrell's (Miss) Test of Virtue, Poems, 330
Battle of Salamanca, a Poem, 328
Bavaria, Succession of, Memoir of the Negotiation relative to, 508
Beverstock's Observations on the Brewery, 218
Bellingham, John, Conversation with, 107
Belsham's Fast Sermon, 447
Bible, Hebrew, new Edition, 215
Bible-Society, Tracts relative to, 87, 110, 111, 223, 300, 323
Black's Translation of Humboldt on New Spain, Vols. III. and IV. 34
Boisgelin's Travels in Denmark, 167
Bradley's Grammatical Questions, 209
———'s Series of Questions, *ib.*
Brazil, History of, 337
Brewery, Observations on, 218
Bridge's Mathematical Lectures, 204
Bristow's Poems, 330
Bromley's Questions on Catholic Emancipation, 435
Burdon's Letters in the Tyne Mercury, 217
Butler's Sermon at Cambridge, 446

C

Cabinet, Antiquarian, Volumes V—X., 208
Call to the Electors, 441
Campbell's Lectures on the Pastoral Character, 103
Carey's Latin Prosody, 99
———'s Scanning Exercises, *ib.*
Castles of Wolfnorth and Montesgle, 332
Catholics, View of the Case of, 435
———, Claims of considered, *ib.*
———, See *Securities*, See *Bromley*.
Catteau-Calleville on the Baltic Sea, 471
Chalmers's Projector, 181
Charlemont, Lord, Memoirs of, *concluded*, 54
Christian Reader's Guide, 443
Christian Religion, Letters on, 141
Church in Danger, 103
Claims of the Catholics considered, 435
Clarke's Travels in Greece, &c. Part II. Sect. I. 1, 113
Clegborn's Hydro-Æronaut, 108
Colton's Napoleon, a Poem, 431
Conversation, a Poem, 499
Copies and Extracts of Documents on the Impressment of American Seamen, 269
*** *Correspondence with the Reviewers*, 112, 224, 335, 336, 448
Cottage-Sketches, 97
Crabb's Preceptor and his Pupils, Part III. 210
Crabbe's Tales, 352
Customs, Abridgment of the Laws of, 100
Cyclopædia, Pocket, 333

D

Daubeny's Remarks on the Parish Register Bill, 334
Davison, Captain, Stanzas on, 329
Dealtry's Vindication of the Bible-Society, 87
———'s Examination of Marsh's Inquiry, *ib.*
Delille's Conversation, a Poem, 499
Denmark and Sweden, Travels in, 167
Derbyshire, View of the Agriculture of, 151
Distich, Dick, Adventures of, 97
D'Ivernois — Napoleon Administrator and Financier, 514
Drake's Gleaner, 240
Drury, Shade of, 98
Duteil on the Formations of Infantry, 311

E

Eastern Tales, 445
Education, Observations on Subjects of, 98
———, Thoughts on, 327
Electors, call to, 441
Elephantasmagoria, 213
Eloquence of the Pulpit, Essay on, 449
Empire of the Nairs, 214
England, See *Rubichon*,
English Grammar, 212
——— —— taught by Examples, *ib.*
——— —— First Lessons in, 327
——— —— See *Fenwick*, *Baldwin*, *Hazlett*.
Essays, Geographical, &c. 108
Ettrick's Second Exodus, 105

Evans's Protestantism and Popery illustrated, 325
Exodus, Second, 105

F

Family Legend, a Tale, 382
Farey on the Agriculture, &c. of Derbyshire, 151
Father's Bequest to his Son, 445
Fenwick's New English Grammar, 210
First Lessons in English Grammar, 327
Fox's History, Vindication of, 364
Fraser's Edition of Campbell's Lectures on the Pastoral character, 103
French Scholar's Depository, 327
Frey's Edition of Van der Hoght's Hebrew Bible, 215
Friends unmasked, 435

G

Geographical, Commercial, and Political Essays, 108
Gleaner, 240
Goertz, Count de, Memoir of his Negotiation, 508
Grammar, English, First Lessons in, 327
———, See *English*.
Grammatical Questions, 209
Grant, Mrs., on the Superstitions of the Highlanders, 251
Greece, Egypt, &c. Travels in, 1, 113
Gregory's Letters on the Christian Religion, 141
Gullet, &c. Morbid Anatomy of, 305
Guy's Pocket Cyclopædia, fifth Edition, 333

H

Halloran's Fast Sermon, 223
———'s Stanzas on Capt. Dawson, 329
Happy Britain, 216
Hardy's Memoirs of Lord Charlemont, *concluded*. 54
Hazlett's New English Grammar, 211
Hebrew-Bible, New Edition, 215
Heywood's Vindication of Fox's History, 364
Highlanders, Essays on the Superstitions of, 251
History of Myself and my Friend, 332
———, Antient, and Grecian, Studies of, 491
——— of Brazil, 337
———, See *Fox*.
Hough, Bishop, Life of, 133
Humboldt's Essay on New Spain, Vols. III. and IV. 34
Hume's Letter and Speech on the Manufacture-Bill, 423
Hunt's Agricultural Memoirs, 322
Hutchinson's Friends unmasked, 435
Hydro Æronaut, or Navigator's Life-Buoy, 108

I and J

Jervis, Sir John White, his Refutation of Montgaillard, 442
Infantry, on the Formations of, 311
Inquiry, Dispassionate, into Madison's Reasons for War, 269
Institute, National, Memoirs of, Vols. VII—X. 534
Intestines, on repairing Injuries of, 198
Jones's Letter on Ecclesiastical Liberality, 216
Juvenal, Specimens of a new Translation of, 432

K

Kemp, Dr. Van der, Memoir of, 220

L

Latin Prosody made Easy, 99
Lawrence's Empire of the Nairs, 214
Lectures, See *Bridge*, See *Campbell*.
Letter to Mr. Perceval, 103
——— on the Bible-Society, 323
Letters on the Christian Religion, 141
——— of Sympathy, 445
———, See *Six*, See *Vansittart*.
Lettre sur la Noblesse, 102
Levesque's Studies of Antient History, 491
Life, Human, Pleasures of, a Poem, 161
Lindley's French Scholar's Depository, 327

M

M'Cauley's (Miss) Poetical Effusions, 432
Macdonald's Translation of Duteil on the Formations of Infantry, 311
Madison, Mr., See *Inquiry*.
Man, Nature of, a Poem, 359
Manufacture-Bill, Letter and Speech on, 423
Marsh's (Dr.) Letter to Mr. Vansittart, 87
———, See *Dealtry*.
———'s (Mr) Sermon at Reading, 223
Martin's Raymond, a Tale, 483
Martyn, Mr., Letter to, 216
Mauritius, Account of the Conquest of, 428
Maury's Essay on Pulpit-Eloquence, 449
Memoir of Dr. Van der Kemp, 220
——— of Count de Goertz's Negotiation, 508
Memoirs of the Margravine of Bareith, 73
——— of the National Institute, Vols. VII.—X. 534
Merino-Society, Second Report of, 320
Monro on the Morbid Anatomy of the Gullet, &c. 305
Montgaillard, Refutation of, 442
Montolieu, Mad.—*Recueil des Nouvelles*, 434
My own Times, a Novel, 332

N

Nairs, Empire of, 214
Napoleon, a Poem, 431
———, Administrator and Financier, 514
Nature of Man, a Poem, 329
Navigator's Life-Buoy, 108
New Spain, See *Humboldt*.
Noblesse, See *Lettre*.
Nouvelles, See *Montolieu*.

O

Observations on Subjects of Education, 98
——— on Virgil's Fourth Eclogue, 412
Ouchter, Adventures of, 434

P

Parish-Registers, Remarks on the Bill for Regulating, 334
Pastoral Character, Lectures on, 103
Peep into High Life, 222
Perceval, Mr., Letter to, 105
Pickering's Letters to the People of America, 259
Plays, by Miss Baillie, Vol. III. 382
Pleasures of Human Life, a Poem, 161
Plumptre's (Miss) History of Myself and my Friend, 332
Poems, See *Seward*, *Vardill*, *Watkins*, *Burrell*, *Bristow*, *Crabbe*, *Colton*, *M'Cauley*, *Delille*, *Halloran*.
Poetic Tales and Miscellanies, 214
Poetical Effusions, 432
Pope's Abridgment of the Laws of Customs, 100
Preceptor and his Pupils, Part III. 210
Projector, 181
Prosody, See *Carey*.
Protestantism and Popery illustrated, 325
Psalms, Selection of, 444
Pulpit, Eloquence of, Essay on, 449

R

Raymond, a Tale, 483
Recueil des Nouvelles, 434
Rejected Addresses, 288
Remarks on the Bill for regulating Parish Registers, 334
Roberts's (Mrs.) Rose and Emily, a Novel, 332
Rose and Emily, a Novel, 332
Rubicon—of England, 442
Ruinous Situation of the West India Islands, 440

S

Salamanca, Battle of, a Poem, 328
Sangora, a Legendary Tale, 98
Says She to her Neighbour, What? 96
Scanning Exercises, 99
Scott's Edition of Miss Seward's Poetical Works, 20
Second Exodus, 105
Securities for the Established Religion considered, 435

Selection of Psalms, 444
Semple's (Mrs.) Thoughts on Education, 327
Serious Call to the Electors, 441
Sermons, Single, 110, 111, 223, 446, 447.
———, Collected, See *Valpy*.
Seward, Miss, her Poetical Works, 20
Shade of Drury, a Vision, 98
Silvanella, or the Gipsey, 214
Six Brief Letters, on the Bible-Society, 87
Smith's Address to the People of America, 259
Somerville's Sermon, 223
Southey's History of Brazil, 337
Spain, New, Essay on, 34
Specimens of a new Translation of Juvenal, 432
Studies of Antient History, 491
Styles's Sermon, 111
Sympath, Letters of, 445

T

Tales, Poetic, &c., 214
—— from a Preceptor to his Pupils, 327
—— in Verse, 352
——, Eastern, 445
Test of Virtue, Poems, 330
Things by their right Names, 97
Travels, See *Clarke*, See *Boisgelin*.
Travers on Injuries of the Intestines, 198
Trigonometry, Lectures on, 204
Tyne Mercury, Letters in, 217

V

Valpy's Sermons, 298
Van der Hooght's Hebrew Bible, new Edition, 215
Vansittart's Three Letters on the Bible-Society, 87
———, Letter to, *ib.*
Vardill, Miss, the Pleasures of Human Life, a Poem, 161
View of the Case of the Catholics, 435
Virgil's Fourth Eclogue, Observations on, 412

W

Warner's Sermon, March 15, 110
———'s Ditto, April 19, 111
Watkins, Miss, Poems by, 329
Wennington's Translations of Adlerjung's Tales, 327
West-India-Claims on the Mother-Country, 438
———— Islands, ruinous Situation of, 440
Wilmot's Life of Bishop Hough, 133
Wilson's Conversation with Bellingham, 107
Windham, Mr., Speeches and Life of, 225
Winter's Sermon on Bowden, 446

ERRATA in Volume LXIX.

Page 32. l. 30. for 'phrases,' r. *phrase.*
199. l. 14. AIBIΩN, r, AIBTΩN.
283. l. 3. from bott. for 'Basidon,' r *Basildon.*
350. l. 23,24. for '*perderve*,' r. *perdervi.*
399. l. 7. put a comma after 'places.'

THE MONTHLY REVIEW,

For SEPTEMBER, 1812.

ART. I. *Travels in various Countries of Europe, Asia, and Africa;* by Edward Daniel Clarke, LL.D. Part II. Greece, Egypt, and the Holy Land. Section the First. 4to. pp. 713. (With Engravings.) 5l. 5s. Boards. Cadell and Davies. 1812.

PASSING events have contributed to render the former portion of Dr. Clarke's travels gratifying to general curiosity; and the ground over which he conducts us in the present continuation of his wanderings has been made so interesting by antient history, that we again account it our duty to enter into a full report of his book. Whether his manner of executing it confers an equal claim to attention is a question to be decided only on a full examination. One thing, however, we can promise his readers in the outset: they will not meet, in this volume, with any of those ebullitions which excited so much dissatisfaction when directed against our Muscovite allies. In this journey, indeed, Dr. C. underwent no confinement, and appears to have been little exposed to indignity of any kind. With regard to style, our testimony must be less flattering; since the Doctor sets out in the preface with an unlucky specimen of prolixity, by occupying twelve quarto pages with his reasons for a very plain matter, we mean his calling the country of the Jews the "Holy Land."—In reporting the former volume, we remarked (Review for May) the contrast between the plain and concise language of the extracts from the Reverend Reginald Heber's MS. Journal and the high sounding diction of Dr. C.; and, in the present Part, though the contributions of friends are less considerable, enough is introduced to remind the reader how much he would have gained had the author been contented to cultivate the less ambitious graces of style. Mr. Walpole, already known to the public by his joint production of *Herculanensia*, (Rev. Vol. lxiii. p. 225.) has supplied several notes from his MS. Journal, coming forwards in some measure as Mr. Heber's successor; and though it be not easy to fill that gentleman's place, Mr. Walpole has adopted a similar modesty of expression, and has communicated sufficient to stimulate our curiosity for *additional observations* from his pen.

Before we continue our critical functions, we cannot help entering our protest against the extended consumption of paper and print as a grievous consequence of an amplifying style. The bulk of Dr. C.'s literary labours is found, it seems, to outweigh his previous calculation; it being now intimated that the materials, originally intended to enter into the present volume, will swell into a third. This notice, if a matter of indifference to those patrons of literature who delight to figure at a fashionable book-auction, is of serious import to the finances of the humbler scholar. The demand of five guineas for a volume, or, as it is pleasantly called in this title-page, a 'Section of Travels,' may be a source of amusement to a *Magnifico* of Pall Mall, but it "strikes with solemn sound" on the ears of an author or reviewer, whose lot it never has been, as far as we can discover, to boast the possession of the favours of fortune.

The volume before us may be divided into four parts. The first is appropriated to an account of Constantinople; the second takes the reader to a spot which is always attractive to the imagination of the classical scholar, the Troad; the third relates a voyage from the Hellespont to the shores of Egypt in the summer of 1801, a season of great importance as to military operations; and the fourth introduces us to scenes of high interest, to Judæa, and the Holy City itself. In this latter part, if Dr. C.'s time was too limited to enable him to make a tour of great extent, he has shewn other travellers a good example in refusing his faith to the current traditions regarding the site of the "sacred places," and in opening the way to a more consistent scheme of analogy between the present appearances and past records of Jerusalem. — We now proceed to an abstract of his book; observing, in our arrangement, the same method which he followed in his travels.

Constantinople, and the Seraglio. — During his residence in this metropolis, Dr. C. paid two hasty visits to the mysterious precincts of the Seraglio. We shall extract the substance of both. — One of the first places to which his observations were directed was the Armoury, where, to his great gratification, he beheld suspended as trophies, by the Turks, the weapons, shields, and military engines of the Greek Emperors. Transient as his view was, for the appearance of a Bostanghi (body-guard) obliged him precipitately to desist, he was persuaded that the Seraglio would, on investigation, be found to contain other interesting remains of the palace of the Cæsars. In a second visit, he ventured to penetrate farther into the interior of the Seraglio, having been directed to make the attempt during the season of *Ramadan* or Turkish Lent, when the guards, being up all

all night, are stupified during the day with sleep and intoxication; and he obtained leave from his guide to bring with him a French artist, whose extraordinary promptitude in design would enable him to make a sketch, in this hasty survey, of all that was most remarkable. Such, however, were the terrors of the Frenchman, that it was with the greatest difficulty Dr. C. could prevail on him to venture into the Seraglio; and he afterward either lost or secreted the only drawings which his fears would allow him to make.

The part to which our traveller was enabled to have access was the summer-residence of the Sultanas, at that time uninhabited, the females being still (February) in their winter-chambers. On entering the Seraglio, the spectator is struck by a confused assemblage of large objects, such as enormous cypresses, massive masonry, broken sarcophagi, and a long gloomy avenue. On the right hand, are the large wooden folding-doors of the Grand Signor's gardens, with fragments of antient marbles lying neglected around. At the entrance of the gardens, the view extends down the principal gravel walk, and all the walks meet at a central point. The spot bearing the name of the Grand Signor's Gardens is not extensive; and the straightness of the walks and the disposition of the borders in parallellograms remind the spectator of the taste of Holland. The most remarkable objects in them are a long green-house, filled with orange-trees, and the *Kiosk*, or magnificent summer-residence of the Sultan. Its front, looking towards the sea, commands all the beauties of the marine prospect of Constantinople. The coast of Asia, the mouth of the Bosphorus, and a moving picture of ships, all fall under the eye of the spectator. In the centre of the building is a spacious chamber, covered by a dome, from which is advanced towards the sea a raised platform surrounded by windows. On the right and left, are the apartments of the Sultan and his ladies; and here, on the sofas, our traveller observed a few things carelessly left by the females; among others, a writing-box of English manufacture, containing, in the drawers, coloured writing-paper, reed-pens, and perfumed wax. Having satisfied their curiosity at the *Kiosk*, the party next hazarded a visit to the summer-*Charem*; (to follow Dr. C.'s orthography, though our's would be, by preference, Haremm;) taking care, in the first place, to see that the garden was cleared of the guard, since their curiosity, if they had been detected, *would have cost them their lives on the spot*. This building is not unlike one of the small colleges of Cambridge, and the inner court may be said exactly to resemble that of Queen's College. It was divided into two parts, one raised above the other. Forcing open a small *window near the* ground, the party climbed into

the inside, and alighted on a long range of wooden beds or couches, covered with mats, and used by slaves when the building is inhabited. They next passed into a higher dormitory, and afterward into a third, consisting of small apartments for slaves of superior rank. They now entered a room of a very different description, the large audience-chamber in which the Sultan-mother receives visits of ceremony from the Sultanas and other great ladies. Nothing, says Dr. C., can be better suited to theatrical representation than this chamber, which affords a striking idea of the pomp, the seclusion, and the magnificence of the Ottoman court. It is surrounded with enormous mirrors, the costly donations of Christian potentates. At the upper end, is an elevated spot, the seat of the Sultan-mother, encompassed by latticed blinds, for even here her person is held too sacred to be exposed to the observation of servants. A flight of broad steps, covered with crimson cloth, leads to this conspicuous seat, and in front of it are two burnished chairs of state. Beyond this apartment is the Sultan's assembly-room, which he occasionally visits to hear music and to unbend with his favourites. Like the other, it is full of mirrors, but the remaining ornaments display that strange mixture of magnificence and vulgarity which is common in the state-chambers of the Turkish grandees. Proceeding farther, the party entered the baths of the Sultan-mother and the four principal Sultanas; which are small, but very elegant, being constructed of white marble, and lighted by ground glass above. — These were the most remarkable objects in this female residence.

Quitting the lower garden of the Seraglio, the travellers went on to gain a view of the chamber in which the Sultan generally passed his private hours. This building is situated in a small garden, in which no plant is suffered to grow except the hyacinth. They examined this apartment by looking through a window, and found it highly magnificent. Three sides of it were surrounded with seats of embroidered satin, and two glass cases contained the Sultan's private library, all in manuscript. Groupes of arms, such as pistols, sabres, and poignards, were disposed with great taste on the different compartments of the walls; their handles and scabbards being covered with diamonds.

Such were the observations which Dr. Clarke was enabled to make on the inside of the Seraglio. A friend, attached to the Swedish embassy in Constantinople, had shortly before reported his success in obtaining a most unusual sight, — a view of the four principal Sultanas and of the Sultan-mother. This gentleman was acquainted with a German gardener who was employed

within the walls of the Seraglio, and who had apartments near the gate of the Sultan's garden.

'They were sitting together one morning, when the cries of the black eunuchs, opening the door of the *Charem*, which communicated with the Seraglio gardens, announced that these ladies were going to take the air.—Upon those occasions, the black eunuchs examine every part of the garden, and run before the women, calling out to all persons to avoid approaching or beholding them, under pain of death. The gardener, and his friend the Swede, instantly closed all the shutters, and locked the doors. The black eunuchs arriving soon after, and finding the lodge shut, supposed the gardener to be absent. Presently followed the Sultan-mother, with the four principal Sultanas, who were in high glee, romping and laughing with each other. A small scullery window, of the gardener's lodge, looked directly towards the gate, through which these ladies were to pass, and was separated from it only by a few yards. Here, through two small gimlet-holes, bored for the purpose, they beheld very distinctly the features of the women, whom they described as possessing extraordinary beauty. Three of the four were Georgians, having dark complexions, and very long dark hair; but the fourth was remarkably fair; and her hair, also of a singular length and thickness, was of a flaxen colour: neither were their teeth dyed black, as those of the Turkish women generally are.—Their dresses were rich beyond all that can be imagined. Long spangled robes, open in front, with pantaloons embroidered in gold and silver, and covered by a profusion of pearls and precious stones, displayed their persons to great advantage; but were so heavy as actually to encumber their motion, and almost to impede their walking. Their hair hung in loose and very thick tresses, on each side their cheeks; falling quite down to the waist, and covering their shoulders behind. Those tresses were quite powdered with diamonds, not displayed according to any studied arrangement, but as if carelessly scattered, by handfulls, among their flowing locks. On the top of their heads, and rather leaning to one side, they wore each of them a small circular patch or diadem. Their faces, necks, and even their breasts, were quite exposed, not one of them having any veil.'

We are rather surprized that Dr. C. could look on a visit to the summer-apartments of the Haremm, in the absence of the ladies, as so dangerous an attempt. His guides, we suspect, must have imposed on him; for we have understood that, as long as these buildings remain without their fair occupants, little difficulty occurs to a reputable stranger in obtaining a sight of them. The same may be said of the Haremms of Beshictachi, of Doulma Bachi, of Caiatana, &c. The German gardener of the Sultan's Haremm is a personage of no difficult access; since every respectable traveller in the Frank society at Pera, known to the Swedish minister or to his chaplain, to Baron Hübsch, the Danish *Chargé d'Affaires*, or to his son, a *partner in the* banking-house on which most

English travellers have letters of credit, may be introduced to the said gardener, who was recommended to that situation by M. Hübsch. As to the sight of the Sultanas through the gimlet-holes by the chaplain, the matter is very different, and we are inclined to apprehend rather more than exaggeration on the part of the Swede. His observations seem to be wonderfully minute for the confined medium of his vision; at the same time that the subject was too serious to be made a matter of sport: because, had the news of such peeping efforts reached the ears of the chamberlains of the Sublime Porte, or of the formidable Kislar Aga, an end would soon have been put to the functions of the German gardener.

Turning from the Seraglio to an object better known to the public, the Mosque of St. Sophia, Dr. C. complains of the exaggerated accounts so frequently given of its beauty. 'In the time of Procopius,' he says, 'its dome might have seemed suspended by a chain from heaven, but at present it exhibits nothing of an aërial character. It is discouraging in the outset to the spectator to find it necessary to go down a flight of stairs to reach the dome.' We regret that he was not more explicit in his account of this celebrated edifice. — With respect to many other objects, too, Dr. C. is of opinion that we must make great deductions from the reports of former travellers.

'Every thing is exaggerated that has been said of the riches and magnificence of Constantinople. Its inhabitants are ages behind the rest of the world. The apartments in their houses are always small. The use of coloured glass in the windows of the mosques, and in some of the palaces, is of very remote date: it was introduced into England, with other refinements, by the Crusaders; and perhaps we may attribute to the same people the style of building observed in many of our most antient dwelling-houses, where, in the diminutive pannelling of the wainscot, and the form of the windows, an evident similarity appears to what is common in Turkey. The Khans for the bankers seem to rank next to the mosques, among the public edifices of any note. The *Ménagerie* shewn to strangers is the most filthy hole in Europe, and chiefly tenanted by rats. The pomp of a Turk may be said to consist in his pipe and his horse. — A saddle cloth embroidered and covered with jewels, stirrups of silver, and other rich trappings, are used by their grandees to adorn their horses. The boasted illuminations of the *Ramadan* would scarcely be perceived, if they were not pointed out. The suburbs of London are more brilliant every night in the year.'—

'There is every reason to believe that, within the precincts of this [illegible] city, many fine remains of antient art may hereafter be disco[illegible]. The courts of Turkish houses are closed from observation; [illegible] some of these are magnificent sarcophagi, concealed from view, [illegible] as cisterns to their fountains. In the floors of the different [illegible] *also, in all probability*, many inscribed marbles; the characters

racters of which, being turned downwards, escape even the observation of the Turks. In this manner the famous trilingual inscription was discovered in Egypt.'—

'It is somewhat singular that among all the literary travellers who have described the curiosities of Constantinople, no one has hitherto noticed the market for manuscripts; yet it would be difficult to select an object more worthy of examination. The *bazar* of the booksellers does not contain all the works enumerated by D'Herbelot; but there is hardly any Oriental author, whose writings, if demanded, may not be procured, although every volume offered for sale is manuscript. The number of shops employed in this way amounts to a hundred: each of these contains, upon an average, five hundred volumes; so that no less a number than fifty thousand manuscripts, Arabic, Persian, and Turkish, are daily exposed to sale. One of my first endeavours was to procure a general catalogue of the writings most in request throughout the empire; that is to say, of those works which are constantly on sale in the cities of Constantinople, Aleppo, and Cairo; and also their prices. This I procured through the medium of a Dervish. The whole of this catalogue is given in the appendix; and it may be considered as offering a tolerable view of the general state of Oriental literature; such for example as might be obtained of the literature of Britain, by the catalogues of any of the principal booksellers of London and Edinburgh.' — 'There are similar manuscript-markets in all the Turkish cities, particularly those of Aleppo and Cairo. Many works common in Cairo are not to be met with in Constantinople. The Beys have more taste for literature than the Turks; and the women shut up in the Charems of Egypt pass many of their solitary hours in hearing persons who are employed to read for their amusement.'

Before we comment on this extract, we proceed to Dr. C.'s farther remarks on Constantinople. The plan which he adopted in quest of Greek MSS. was to become intimate with an intelligent Greek priest, and through his means to procure access to the private libraries of the principal Greek families. Instead of offering to persons of their station payment in money for their MSS., his rule was to give them in exchange printed editions of the Greek classics, and other valuable books. He examined much more than he procured, as it frequently happens that Greek manuscripts are very uninteresting. The Greek nobles reside in the Phanar, a district in the northern part of Constantinople, and are the only persons whose circumstances enable them to promote effectually the cultivation of antient literature: but their influence with government is directed to a very different purpose. Instead of seeking the public patronage for Greek schools, their interest is set at work to obtain for themselves a preference in those official nominations in which the Porte finds it expedient to employ Greeks. These are chiefly the *offices of Interpreter*, of Patriarch, and of *Hospodar or Prince of Wallachia* and Moldavia. It follows, there-

fore, that, though the Greeks of the Phanar are well acquainted with their antient authors, and no strangers to the principal modern languages, the cause of antient literature has received little benefit at their hands; and it is much more indebted to the exertions of Greek merchants residing at Venice, Trieste, or Vienna. The Turks, it must be added, are desirous of discouraging any efforts or plans that can revive the recollection of antient independence; a late example of which has been afforded by the persecution of a Greek who had translated the travels of Anacharsis into the current language of his country.

These are the leading features in Dr. C.'s account of Constantinople, and we are obliged to apply to some of them the same kind of animadversion as in the case of the Seraglio. To begin with the illuminations. — We cannot refrain from intimating that he speaks too contemptuously of the appearance of Constantinople during the month of the Ramadan. Every mosque, we know, has lights round each story of its minarets; and, in the Imperial mosques, coloured lamps, strung on wires or cords, are suspended from minaret to minaret, sometimes in parallel festoons, the whole producing an effect very different from that to which Dr. C. has compared them. With regard to a more important topic, viz. the Doctor's method of collecting MSS., it had less novelty than he seems to imagine. Mr. Carlyle, the late professor of Arabic at Cambridge, who was sent by Mr. Pitt, at the suggestion of the Bishop of Lincoln, to search for MSS., generally employed a learned Maronite, and others well versed in Oriental literature, to aid him in his collections. Dr. Clarke's Oriental MSS. have been consigned chiefly to the Bodleian Library at Oxford; while those of Professor Carlyle were purchased by the East India Company for the use of their College and Museum, which we trust opens its treasures to scholars on a liberal plan, and aims at meriting Gilbert Wakefield's encomium on Cambridge:—"*Opes suas haud invidens eruditis; neque ut soror ejus Oxoniensis, thesauros musæos; qui debent, ut aer et sol, omnibus communes esse, propriis parietibus (inclusos dicam, an abditos ac sepultos?) in æternum continens.*" *(Pref. in Lucret.)*

The chief errors of late tourists in classical regions have arisen from a kind of pre-determination to find a close resemblance between the antient and the present customs of the inhabitants. Dr. C. is strongly inclined to view things in this way, and says there is every reason to believe that the Turks adopted many of the 'customs and refinements of the conquered Greeks.' Passing over, for the present, a remarkable contradiction in his estimate (p. 4. and 6.) of the degree of civilization among the

the Turks in the 15th century, we may safely advance that they had too much contempt for their Greek or Romaic subjects to imitate either their customs or their dress. The traveller who has noticed the sollicitude of a Greek for a Mussulman turban, or a pair of yellow slippers, will rather be induced to ascribe any existing coincidence to imitation on the part of the Greeks. Dr. C.'s leaning to the theory which we have mentioned is curiously exemplified in his account of the jugglers called the howling Dervishes of Scutari and Galata; who, he says, 'preserve in their frantic orgies the rites of the priests of Baal.' A distinction, however, exists between these gentlemen and their prototypes, which is fatal, we apprehend, to his supposed derivation, viz. that the latter cut themselves in good earnest till the "blood gushed out *," while the former take special care to preserve their skin in safety. It may be worth while also to notice, in correction of Dr. C., (p. 41.) that the 'dancing' Dervishes are more esteemed by the Turks than their 'howling' brethren.

We conclude our observations on Constantinople with a few comments on a description of the horrors of the capture of that metropolis, written by Cardinal Isidore, who represents himself as an eye-witness. This effusion has been found by Dr. C. in a very rare work, and is now reprinted in his appendix. The reprinting of it is very proper, but we think that he over-rates its value. 'In its perusal we feel,' he says, 'as spectators of the catastrophe;' a feeling in which we confess ourselves unable to join, since our examination of this composition leads us to rank it little higher than the declamation of a Greek sophist. Isidore seems to forget the fundamental rule that an adherence to truth is the basis of rhetoric, and represents the Greeks as being made slaves of *porcarii*, swine-herds, though no such occupation as that of swine-herd prevails among the Turks. He says, likewise, that they destroyed without mercy the emblems of Christian worship; "*Imagines Domini nostri et matris ejus virginis confringentes, concultantes*," &c. Now this was by no means the case, for not only has the mosaic of St. Sophia been suffered to remain till time has loosened most of it, but even at Saloniki (Thessalonica), where many of the Turks understand Greek, we may now see in a mosque, which was formerly a Greek church, a large fresco painting of the Virgin with the infant Jesus in her arms, and the words ὁ ων, (the *ens entium*) and Παντοκρατωρ, (the Creator) inscribed around the Saviour. In another mosque there, we may see on the dome a painting of our Lord's ascension into heaven, while the disciples are represented as looking up and

* 1 Kings xviii.

listening

listening to the words of the angels: "Ye men of Galilee, why stand ye gazing up into heaven? this same Jesus, which is taken up from you into heaven, shall so come in like manner as you have seen him go up into heaven." These words remain inscribed in perspicuous characters, affording an evidence of the tolerating spirit of the Turks; together with a presumption that the bigotted Christian Greeks have been the chief destroyers of the beautiful images of their heathen ancestors.

Plain of Troy.—In the beginning of March (1801) Dr. Clarke left Constantinople, and set out on a visit to the scene of the Ilian war. Steering southward for the Hellespont, he was obliged to pass, unvisited, the ruins of Cyzicum; and in the glance which he obtained of the present village of Lampsacus, he discerned nothing to stimulate curiosity. The shores of the Hellespont are neither so bold nor so richly decorated as those of the Thracian Bosphorus. Landing at the entrance of the Hellespont, he and his companion, Mr. Cripps, proceeded on foot to the town of the Dardanelles, and were struck with the picturesque appearance of the opposite castles of Europe and Asia. They learnt that no improbability attaches to the exploit ascribed to Leander of swimming across the streight between Sestos and Abydos, an expert swimmer having been known to cross the channel at a much wider place; and Lord Byron, indeed, in his late publication, mentions that he and a lieutenant of the Salsette swam across in an hour and five minutes. At the Dardanelles, the travellers procured proper persons to attend as guides in the expedition to the plain of Troy; and, going again on board, they were rowed along the Hellespont during a delightful day, when the water was smooth, and the sky not obscured by a single cloud. On drawing towards the Ægean sea, they had, to the right, the mountainous island of Imbros, and the snow-clad summits of Samothrace; Tenedos was in front, and the more distant islands appeared as if placed on the surface of a vast mirror. As they advanced, they observed the Rhœtean promontory, and on its sloping side the tumulus which has been considered by the tradition of many ages as the tomb of Ajax. This is an interesting object to a literary traveller; the writers, who have mentioned it, relating that the tomb was surmounted by a shrine, and it so happening that the shrine, with a considerable portion of the superstructure, remains to this hour. The view of the Hellespont and of the plain of Troy, afforded from the *Aiantéum*, is very fine. According to Strabo and to Pliny, the tradition was that the ships of Ajax lay to the westward, very near this tumulus; a circumstance which, taken with others, seems to point out the spot described by Homer as the station of the Grecian fleet.—On approaching the coast, the eye, directed along the plain of Troy, is particularly

larly attracted by a conical mound rising on a line of high ground, and pointed out as the tomb of Æsyetes. It is so situated as to command a prospect not only of the naval station of the Greeks but of the whole Trojan plain, and forms indeed a conspicuous object from any part whence it is viewed.

The travellers landed at Koum Kalé, a castle on a neck of land westward of the Grecian station, and afterward crossed the Scamander by a wooden bridge near its mouth. The width of the river in this part is considerable, being nearly 400 feet. They then proceeded on horseback around the bay, which has been regarded as the Grecian station, and visited the tomb of Ajax; and advancing inland they searched, as they had been advised, for the remains of temples once sacred to the Thymbrian Apollo. Without being able to trace the connection between these ruins and antient history, they could readily ascertain that, on the score of quantity at least, no exaggeration is ascribable to the previous description. The earth was covered all around by broken columns of marble and granite; and Doric, Ionic, and Corinthian capitals lay dispersed in various directions. No record remaining of the city to which these temples belonged, Dr. C. hazards a conjecture that, from the situation, it may have been Scamandria, a town long posterior in its erection to the Trojan æra.—The travellers passed the night at the village of Thymbreck, near the river Thymbrius or pseudo-Simois. This stream, on approaching the Troad, runs in a line nearly parallel to the sea, and has been mistaken for the Simois. Like the latter, it falls into the Scamander: but so imperfect hitherto are our maps of the Troad, that the point of conflux remains undescribed. In summer, the Thymbrius is almost dry, but in winter it is often a powerful torrent.—On the next morning, our travellers resumed their ride, and, in the course of some time, reached a tumulus of very remarkable size and situation, which seemed to them to answer Homer's description of the tomb of Ilus. Near this tomb begins a natural mound, extending from about north to south in the middle of the plain; and this Dr. Clarke ventures to put down as the θρωσμος πεδιοιο, or "mound of the plain," on which the Trojans are said to have encamped after the victory in the eighth book, and near which the obstinate conflict described in the eleventh is stated to have taken place, as long as the Greeks continued successful and stood their ground. On the surface of the tumulus, in small channels caused by rain, the travellers found fragments of antient vases. To account for their appearance on this spot, after the lapse of many centuries, is no easy matter: but certain it is, says Dr. Clarke, that they are *not of modern origin*, the antiquity of earthen

ware

ware from the wheel of a Grecian potter being as easily cognizable as any work left for modern observation. Having ridden along the top of the "mound of the plain," the travellers reached the Callifat Water, a river of a very slow course, yet deep enough to require being passed at a ford. This stream is supposed by Dr. C. to be the Simois, and he thinks there would not be a doubt on the subject, were it not for the singular error which has prevailed throughout all the recent discussions about the Troad with regard to the sources of the Scamander. Pope, he says, appears to have been the first in this country who mistook Homer so far as to represent the source of the Scamander as derived from two fountains in the neighbourhood of Troy; whereas the lines in question, (Iliad 22.)

Κρουνὼ δ' ἵκανον καλλιῤῥόω, ἔνθα δὲ πηγαὶ
Δοιαὶ ἀναΐσσουσι Σκαμάνδρου δινήεντος

are to be understood as referring to two fountains pouring their tribute of waters into the river in its course. The springs of Bonarbashy, about which so much has lately been said as the source of the Scamander *, instead of two, are forty in number. The whole country abounds both with hot and cold springs; and the source of the Scamander, as we shall see presently, is to be sought in a very different quarter.

Continuing his ride along the Callifat Water, Dr. C. discovered a considerable extent of ruins lying in the utmost disorder, which consisted of beautiful Doric pillars, of the finest white marble. Doric was evidently the prevailing order among the edifices of Troas. The Greek village of Callifat stands near the spot at which the river falls into the Scamander; and here the peasants of the neighbourhood came to our travellers with Greek medals struck in the time of the Roman Emperors, and bearing a reference to the exploits recorded by Homer. On inquiring where they were found, the answer was at *Palaio Callifat*, Old Callifat, in the plain to the eastward, a short distance from the present village. Thither accordingly our travellers proceeded, and saw the remains of an antient citadel, on an elevated spot of ground, surrounded on all sides by a plain. Turks were at that time employed in raising enormous blocks of marble from foundations surrounding the place, for the purpose of constructing works at the Dardanelles; and these excavations facilitated the discovery of medals, which at other times were seldom found, unless after heavy rains. The uniformity of the subjects of these legends, and the coincidence of situation

* See our Review of Gell's Topography of Troy, M. R. Vol. I. *N. S. p. 371.*

with

with Strabo's description, leave very little doubt that the spot in question was the site of the second city of Troy; or, as the antients called it, New Ilium. 'Once in possession of this important point,' says Dr. C., 'a light breaks in on the dark labyrinth of Troas; and we stand with Strabo on the very spot whence he deduced his observations concerning other objects in the district.' In fact, the eye takes in almost every land-mark to which that author has alluded. The nearer objects were the "mound of the plain," the tomb of Ilus, the conflux of the Scamander and Callifat Water, and, farther to the south, the tomb of Æsyetes. Farther off appeared, on the one hand, the Sigæan promontory, and on the other the mouth of the Hellespont; while the two grand objects which filled the eye in the back-ground were the snowy summits of Samothrace in the west, and of Gargarus in the great chain of Ida, in the east. Remote as they were, the distance of both appeared lost in their towering height, and in a sky which was unobscured by a cloud.

Though no converts to the new doctrine respecting the springs of Bonarbashy, Dr. C. and his companion determined to visit them. The shortest way was by crossing the Scamander above its conflux with the Callifat Water. Arriving at a ford, and being assured by some Turks on the opposite shore that the river was passable, they rode boldly into the water, but found considerable difficulty in gaining the other side. The river was still swelled by the snows of Ida, and, though not less than 200 feet wide, the current was extremely rapid, and came up to the saddle-girths. At certain seasons, it inundates all the neighbouring territory, fully keeping up the character given to it in the days of Homer. The late theory which would make the Simois the larger of the two, and in fact exchange places with the Scamander, is here deservedly ridiculed.—After the passage of the Scamander, the road to Bonarbashy was easy. On approaching the springs, Dr. C. was directed, in the first instance, to the one which is called by the peasants the "hot spring." This was a shallow pool of water, formed by the united product of many small fountains in the different crevices of a surrounding stratum of *breccia*, or pudding-stone. He first tried the water with his hand, and, feeling it warm, proceeded to apply the thermometer, which rose to 62, and there remained. The time was evening, and the temperature of the external air was 48. Dr. C. then proceeded to the hot spring described by M. Chevalier, and beheld a fountain gushing perpendicularly out of the earth, with as copious a stream as the famous spring of Holy-Well in Flintshire. It is surrounded by a marble and granite reservoir, of great antiquity; and during

cold

cold weather the condensed vapour about it has the appearance of a cloud of smoke. Its heat, like the other, is 62; notwithstanding which, fishes were seen sporting in the reservoir. Whether tried during the day, at midnight, or in the morning before sunrise, the degree of heat was regularly found to be the same: but, when the stream flowing from either of these springs was examined, the temperature was observed to diminish in proportion to the distance from the source. Bonarbashy itself seems, from the abundant fragments of Doric and Ionic pillars, to have been the site of one of the various towns which were erected on the Troad long after the age of Priam and Agamemnon.

From Bonarbashy, Dr. C. went to examine the heights in its neighbourhood, which have been erroneously represented by recent travellers as the site of the citadel of antient Troy. The first object which strikes the spectator, on ascending this height, is an antient tumulus, constructed solely of stones, and of the usual size and shape of these sepulchres. Its circumference at the base is 93 yards; and it has been termed the tomb of Hector, without reflecting that other tumuli on the hill have an equal title from size, and a better from situation, to the honour of this appellation. The length of the ridge is half a mile, and its breadth in the widest part nearly an eighth of a mile. The foundations of the buildings are inconsiderable; and the most remarkable feature of the spot in question is the extensive prospect which it affords over the plain of Troy, and of the course of the Scamander to the sea. The tumuli on these heights are without doubt of great antiquity: but we much suspect the propriety of ascribing to them the names of Trojan chiefs, so liberally bestowed on them in the present day.

Visit to Ida.—The next object of the travellers required a considerable share of exertion, being a journey to the source of the Scamander, and to the top of Gargarus, the highest mountain in the chain of Ida. The whole course of the Scamander appears to be about fifty miles, a length which would be disproportioned to its magnitude in any other than a mountainous district. After having advanced twelve miles from Bonarbashy, Dr. C. arrived at the town of *Æne*, the *Æneia* of Strabo, pleasantly situated on a small river which falls into the Scamander. He dwells with great satisfaction on this commemoration of the name of the Dardan warrior; who is said to have retired up the country, and to have ruled over his fugitive fellow-citizens, after the fall of Troy. As far as the question regards the identity of situation of the present town with that of Strabo, perhaps we have no reason for doubt. The *Æne* to Turkmanlè led through part of the beau-

tiful plain of Beyramitch, which appeared to the eye one of the happiest territories in nature: but, as the travellers approached Gargarus, the extent of snow apparent along its higher region, and the continuance of cold weather, increased the impression of the difficulty of their enterprize. On taking up their residence in the abodes of the inhabitants, they were struck with the resemblance between their dwellings and those of our English ancestors. The small pannelled wainscot full of little cupboards, the latticed windows nearer to the roof than to the floor, and the custom of hanging on the walls their weapons and instruments for the chase, all favoured the notion that our ancestors were indebted to their Oriental expeditions in the crusades for various improvements in the style of their habitations.—About six miles beyond the town of Beyramitch, towards Gargarus, on a high conical hill, ruins of considerable extent have lately been discovered; and Dr. C. is disposed to consider them as the remnants of the temples of the Idean Jupiter mentioned by Æschylus and Plutarch. On the top of the hill particularly, a circular grove of venerable oaks, and a rude inclosure of stones ranged in a druidical circle, impress the traveller with the idea of great antiquity. Such is the deception of the eye in neighbouring mountains, that, though ten miles distant from Gargarus, a person stationed on the spot which we have mentioned is apt to imagine that he could hold converse with another on the opposite summit.—Having passed the night in a village at the base of Gargarus, the travellers began the ascent next morning at day break. Like Ætna, this mountain has during a considerable portion of the year a triple zone; first, cultivated fields; next, forests; and, thirdly, a region of snow and ice. Part of the way was travelled on horseback along the banks of the Scamander, and afforded an occasional prospect of the remains of small Greek chapels, the retreats of Christian hermits in the fourth and fifth centuries. On passing half way through the woody region, however, the party found it necessary to leave their horses and proceed on foot; their guides beginning to murmur at the increasing ruggedness of the road, while their own eagerness to advance was stimulated by partial anticipations, through openings in the forest, of the extensive prospect awaiting them from the summit. To the summit, however, none of them, with the exception of Dr. C., ventured to climb; the ascent, which in summer may be accomplished without difficulty, being in this wintry season attended with much hazard. Arrived at last at the highest of the four tops of Gargarus, Dr. C. was amply repaid for his labour and danger. The distant sea of Marmora, the mountains of Prusa, the shore of Thrace, Mount Athos, and a great part of Mysia *and Bithynia*, seemed extended below the

the eye. The plain of Troy appeared like a lawn crossed by the course of the Scamander as if by a silver thread; the tomb of Æsyetes being the only elevation in it sufficiently large to be visible from this height. Looking along the Idean chain, the tops of the different mountains appeared to sink in height by regular gradation, affording a farther example of Homer's attention to topographical accuracy.

A second excursion along a part of Gargarus was directed to the source of the Scamander. Passing many ruins of hermitages near the banks of this stream, which is here only a mountain-torrent, the travelling party entered, amid the noise of waters, a remarkable natural amphitheatre formed by craggy rocks rising to an immense height, and covered with shrubs, pines, and plane-trees. Here, from a chasm in the face of a perpendicular rock, the Scamander first issues into day. Little doubt can be entertained that it has previously had a subterraneous course, since the same magnificent discharge is said to continue during all seasons of the year. The source of the Scamander, observes Dr. Clarke, is of no doubtful locality or intermediate character; 'it bursts at once from the dark womb of its parent, in all the greatness of the divine origin assigned to it by Homer.' Well might the early Christians retire to this striking scenery. The voice of nature speaks here in her most awful tone; and 'amid roaring waters, waving forests, and broken precipices, the mind of man becomes impressed as by the influence of a present deity.'

On returning from the journey to Mount Ida, the travellers directed their steps to the coast, and visited the ruins of Alexandria Troas. The architectural remains of that city, as well as those of Cnidos and others, have long served as a kind of quarry for the Turks, and for the Greeks of the latter empire, to dig out materials for ornamental building. The wonder is that, after all that has been removed, the remains should still be so ample; particularly those of the public baths. The theatre, likewise, is in a state of considerable preservation, the semicircular range of seats continuing vaulted at either extremity. Like most other Greek theatres, it was built on the slope of a hill, the nature of the ground being made subservient to the position of the seats in a regular descent. The diameter of the theatre is 252 feet, and it commands a noble view of the sea, with the island of Tenedos in front.

Leaving Alexandria, the travellers rode northward towards the plain of Troy, and visited the lofty tumulus of Æsyetes, the spot of all others best adapted for a view of this classic ground. Descending from this eminence, and riding in a northern direction, they reached the Sigæan promontory, and proceeded

proceeded once more to view the naval station of the Greeks. It is easy to disprove the argument lately brought against Homer on the score of the distance (nearly four miles) of the Sygæan and Rhætean promontories, the fact being that Homer mentions no names, and evidently alludes to head-lands in the intermediate space between these promontories. Another objection, derived from the Homeric epithet πλατυς Ἑλλησποντος, has been removed by Mr. Walpole, who suggests that it is to be taken in the sense not of "broad" but of "salt Hellespont." The points which Dr. C. thinks that he has established are, that,

1. The ruins of *Palaio-Callifat* are those of new Ilium, described by Strabo.

2. The *Callifat Osmack* is the Simois, and the adjoining plain is the scene of the battles of the Iliad.

3. *Æné* is the *Æneia* of Strabo.

4. The river Mender, flowing from Mount Gargarus, is evidently the Scamander of Homer, Strabo, and Pliny.

5. The position of the Aiantéum, according with the description given of it by antient authors, points out the situation allotted by Homer to the Grecian fleet.

Amid all these researches, it is of importance to remark that Dr. C. hazards no opinion regarding the site of Troy itself. He merely hints (p. 88. and 169.) at the possibility of its being situated on a spot about three miles to the eastward of the "mound of the plain." Without discussing this part of the question, we are disposed to agree with him that our knowlege of the Troad is still very imperfect; the recent investigations of travellers having been directed much more to the western than to the eastern side of the Scamander.

Voyage from the Dardanelles to Ægypt. — The facility of navigating the Mediterranean during the summer-months induced our travellers to trust themselves on board a small vessel, indifferently manned, and loaded in every corner with articles for sale to the British military in Ægypt. Leaving the Dardanelles, they sailed along the coast of the Troad, and took a parting view of the yellow current of the Scamander tinging the dark waves of the Hellespont. They were prevented by the state of the weather from landing at Tenedos, and it was not in their power to set their feet on the shore of Lesbos; a circumstance which they greatly regretted, Lesbos being, next to Eubœa, the largest island in the Ægean sea, and the parent of many Æolian colonies. It was equally noted for the products of its soil and for the literary eminence of several of its natives. The grandest object, however, in point of natural beauty, was the island of Chios, the *modern Scio*; which is, we acknowlege, *a fit subject for Dr. C.'s elevated style.*

'As we advanced and drew near to this island, the gorgeous picture presented by it drew all our attention, and engrossed it from daylight until noon. It is the *paradise of modern Greece*; more productive than any other island, and yielding to none in grandeur. We passed close beneath the town, sailing pleasantly along its vineyards and plantations, and enhaling spicy odours, wafted from cliffs and groves. The houses being all white, with flat roofs, presented a lively contrast to the evergreens which overshadowed them; seeming like little palaces in the midst of bowers of citron, lime, olive, and pomegranate trees. This chosen spot was for many years the residence of an Englishman of the name of Bainbridge, who had searched all Europe for a healthy place wherein to end his days; and although his arm was fractured at the advanced age of seventy-four, he lived in Scio until he was ninety-three.—Indeed, the praises of this favoured island are universal in the country; and its delights constitute the burden of many a tale, and many a song among the modern Greeks.'

The next objects of magnitude, in Dr. C.'s southward course, were the mountains of Samos. These are often wrapt in clouds when all around is clear and serene; a circumstance which, joined to their extraordinary height, may have given rise to the mythological tradition that these aërial solitudes were the abode of Deities. The voyage all the way to Rhodes might be said, from the number of islands, to resemble the navigation of a large river. On reaching Rhodes, the travellers found a neglected harbour, choked with ruins, but on shore a salubrious atmosphere, and gardens filled with delicious fruit. Its history having been ably given by Savary, and forming perhaps the best specimen of that author's talents, Dr. C. confines himself to a short description of its present appearance. When we consider the prevalence of bad air during the summer-months, in many interesting spots along the Mediterranean, it is pleasing to record that Rhodes forms a remarkable exception.—On leaving this harbour, the state of the wind induced the master of the vessel to stand over to the Gulph of Glaucus, now called Macri Bay, on the coast of Asia Minor. The general appearance of that coast is grand and awful: but the entrance of this gulph is flanked by mountains possessing those characteristics in a particular degree. The difficulty of entrance being surmounted, this extensive bay is found to be completely land-locked, and to afford secure shelter; an advantage, however, which in the hot months is more than compensated by an unhealthy climate. Various parts of the coast contain interesting ruins, but none are on so large a scale as those of the antient city of Telmessus. There, as in the walls of Tirynthus or Crotona, a vastness of proportion excites a mixture of admiration and awe. The description of the Soroi or Sarcophagi around the site of this city, (p. 245. et seq.) will be found very interesting, and they appear to

to have suggested to Dr. C. the ideas expressed by him (p. 549.) respecting the position of Calvary. The present town of Macri has been erected on the site of Telmessus, and built in a great measure from its relics; yet enough is left to prove the ample compass of the antient city. — We dwell on this part of the book with the more pleasure, because the objects described are out of the beaten tract of Mediterranean travels. Dr. C. has pointed out the town of Lindus, in the island of Rhodes, as worthy of the researches of future travellers, in addition to which we would suggest the islands of Carpathos and Samothrace. Carpathos, now Scarpanto, has not been described, as far as we recollect, by any literary traveller, though represented by the mariners of those seas as abounding in remains of antient art. Samothrace is, in like manner, said to be full of magnificent ruins, having been the last refuge of the votaries of the Eleusinian and other Pagan mysteries. Neither of them is difficult of access; the former being in the track of the voyager to Egypt, Cyprus, or Crete; and the latter lying contiguous to the mouth of the Hellespont.

While we accord with Dr. Clarke respecting the interest of Lindus and Telmessus, on some minor points we cannot help differing from him. He appears desirous (p. 178.) that the granite sarcophagus in the market-place of Tenedos should be removed to England. The inscription on it is very legible, and relates to Claudia Secunda, the wife of Atticus, father of Herodes Atticus. This relic was brought from Troas, and now serves as a cistern at Tenedos: a purpose to which we would suffer it to continue subservient, particularly as its removal would be attended with considerable expence. Another point of difference with the Doctor, and one on which reviewers have unfortunately little right to speak with confidence, regards the quality of wine. 'Good Tenedos,' says the Doctor, (p. 315.) 'not only excels every other wine of Greece, but perhaps has nowhere its rival in Europe.' Now to our palates, (less practised, we fear, than that of Dr. C.,) it appeared rough and flavourless.

We take leave of Greece, her wines, and her monuments, by extracting a passage from Mr. Walpole's journal, written with his usual clearness and simplicity, and containing some useful remarks on the manners of the present inhabitants:

"During my journey in Asia, I took up my abode for the night in the khans or caravanseras, choosing a room to myself in these bad substitutes for inns, rather than the private houses of the Turks, where my Janissary procured me admittance. For although the Turks are quiet and inoffensive, yet any thing is preferable to sleeping in a small room with half-a-dozen of them; or to a cross-legged posture at meals, round a low table, eating spoon-meats, of which their repasts

generally consist. As the road I travelled was not much frequented, I was forced to stop at the houses of individuals; and arriving generally at sun-set, I found them beginning their supper: their dinner is at ten in the morning, as they rise at break of day. Sometimes a village afforded a small hut of mud and straw purposely built for travellers: half of this was raised about two feet from the ground, for men to lie on; the other half accommodated three or four horses. In the great towns it was necessary to go first to the governor, with some present, accompanied by my Janissary.—Presents to the servants are always given.—I passed the evenings writing my journal, and reading some books of travels I had with me. The Turkish peasants would sometimes bring medals: these they found in the fields. The conversation of the Turks turned generally, as I found from my interpreter, on the affairs of the village, and its neighbourhood. The women never appeared."—

"A Greek labourer receives from thirty-five to forty paras a day, nearly fifteen-pence: he works only two-thirds of the year; the other third consists of holydays. During the four fasts, of which that in Lent is the most strictly observed, he eats shell-fish, caviar (the roe of sturgeon), pulse, and anchovies. I observed but few Greek villages in Asia Minor: the Greeks all seek the great towns, to avoid more easily the different means of oppression resorted to by the Turkish governors.—The Turks, as far as my experience carried me, show no disposition to molest or offend a traveller. Something contemptuous may at times be observed in their manner; but a great change for the better, in their general deportment, is to be attributed to their never being now exasperated by the attack of Corsairs or pirates on the coast.

"No people living under the same climate, and in the same country, can be so opposite as the Greeks and Turks. There is in the former a cringing manner, and yet a forwardness; faults, which are those of their unfortunate situation, and would disappear under more favourable circumstances, and a different government."

[*To be concluded in our next Number.*]

ART. II. *The Poetical Works of Anna Seward;* with Extracts from her Literary Correspondence. Edited by Walter Scott, Esq. In three Volumes. Crown 8vo. 1l. 11s. 6d. Boards. Longman and Co.

VANITY has been said to cling to genius as the ivy embraces the oak: but, unlike other parasite plants, it often invigorates the stock which it entwines. At least, Miss Seward's good opinion of herself seems to have stimulated her exertions; and, to compensate for that measured praise which she received in her life-time, she resolved on making ample provision for posthumous fame, and on bequeathing her MSS. to gentlemen who were likely to render her abundant justice. If cold-blooded, phlegmatic, and uninspired critics darkened her ascending orb

as

as it traced its path along the hemisphere of literature, she trusted that it would make a golden set, and that the streams of its radiance would for some time illumine the western horizon. We applaud the judicious disposal of the materials on which she rested her fame; and as they possess a considerable portion of merit in themselves, and have been placed in good hands, she has not miscalculated on the success which, perhaps, she often enjoyed by anticipation. Those critics whom she abused and calumniated are ready to allow that she ranks high among the lady-writers of our isle; that her mind was cultivated in no ordinary degree; and that her prose-compositions, though occasionally stiff and pedantic, frequently display force and elegance, as well as a style of original thinking which is the mark of true genius. If her poetry be not equal to her prose, it is still indicative of talent; and if she could have more patiently tolerated the strictures of criticism, her Muse would probably have been more brilliant.

Before, however, we take a farther view of Anna Seward the poet, we must suffer our attention to be arrested by the prefatory matter with which her present poetical editor introduces his sister-Muse. Though her letters give a tolerable picture of her life, some biographical notice was necessary to complete the outline; and Mr. Walter Scott has endeavoured, in a concise preface, to supply those particulars which could not be gleaned from the letters. Yet in one instance, of a material kind, he appears to have fallen into a palpable mistake; we mean, as to the year in which the subject of the memoir was born. At page iv. of the preface, we are told that Miss Seward's birth was in the year 1747; though in a letter dated Lichfield 1764, inserted among the literary correspondence, (p. lxxxviii.) the lady herself writes thus to her friend: 'Alas! of the soft and musically sounding *teens*, I took an eternal farewell the 12th of December last;' and if she was twenty on the 12th of December 1763, she must have been born in 1743. It is moreover necessary for her credit to make this correction; since, as the dates now stand, she must appear to be a very forward Miss, and to offer remarks on the *Nouvelle Heloise* at a time when such a book ought not to have fallen into her hands. Another mistake occurs in the next leaf, respecting the birth-place of Garrick; which was not Lichfield, as stated by Mr. Scott, but Hereford. Before we dismiss the subject of dates, we must express our surprise that Miss Seward's present biographer has not regularly specified the time at which her several works were published; an omission which, by the help of our General Index, we shall endeavour to supply.

The first poem which Miss S. distinctly published, and to which she affixed her name, was her *Elegy on Captain Cook*, which appeared in 1780, and was noticed by us with much commendation in M. R. Vol. lxii. p. 458. Her next publication was the *Monody on Major André*, in 1781, of which we gave a favourable report in Vol. lxiv. p. 337. Then, a *Poem to the Memory of Lady Miller*, which appeared in 1782; see M. R. Vol. lxvii. p. 46. In 1784 she published *Louisa, a poetical Novel*, on which we offered some mild strictures, yet not without giving her considerable praise, in Vol. lxxi. p. 335. The lady, however, was irritable on this subject; and, either written by herself or by some too partial friend, in 1785 appeared a pamphlet, intitled *Hypercriticism on Miss Seward's Louisa*, at which we glanced in Vol. lxxiii. p. 393., without deviating from our former remarks, which we were persuaded were just, as well as kindly meant. Her next work was an *Ode on General Elliot's return from Gibraltar*, published in 1787, and reviewed by us in Vol. lxxvii. p. 155. We do not again meet the name of Miss Seward in our pages till the 20th Vol. of our New Series, where *Llangollen Vale, and other Poems*, published in 1796, are noticed. In 1799, she sent forth a respectable quarto, intitled *Original Sonnets on various Subjects*, and *Odes paraphrased from Horace*, (see M. R. Vol. xxix. N. S. p. 361.), and in 1804 she presented to the public her *Memoirs of the Life of Dr. Darwin*, &c. (M. R. Vol. xlvii. N. S. p. 286.) Farther than this, we believe, our notices do not extend; and we now return to the brief memorials in the volumes before us.

Here we are informed by the Editor that the Rev. Thomas Seward, Rector of Eyam, in Derbyshire, Prebendary of Salisbury, and Canon Residentiary of Lichfield, married Miss Elizabeth Hunter, daughter of Mr. Hunter, head-master of the school at Lichfield, the preceptor of Johnson, and of other eminent literary characters; that on his marriage he settled at his rectory of Eyam; and that in the second year of his union the subject of this memoir was born. Mr. Seward, being himself a poet, early introduced his daughter to the works of Milton, Dryden, Pope, Young, Shakspeare, and Prior; while the strong emotions excited by the harmony of verse were fostered by the romantic scenery of the village in which she passed her infancy. Before she was ten years old, she attempted a metrical version of the Psalms, as well as some original composition. About 1754, (that is, when she was eleven years old, by our account: but only seven, according to Mr. W. Scott,) she was removed to Lichfield; which, excepting occasional visits to Eyam and other places, continued to be her residence, during her

her father's life. Here she early attracted the notice of Dr. Darwin. We are informed, however, that her parents, unwilling to see her become a literary lady, repressed her genius, and endeavoured to divert her from the Muses by teaching her ornamental needle-work: but all attempts were ineffectual; and, having lost a sister, who was on the eve of forming a matrimonial union, Miss Seward wrote an Elegy on her death, which forms the first article in this collection. Her sister died at the age of 19, and Miss S. must have written this poem when she was 20, or 21. At this period, 'offers of matrimonial establishments,' says Mr. Scott, 'occurred, and were rejected, in one instance entirely, and in others chiefly, from a sense of filial duty; but being now of age to select her own society and studies, Miss Seward's love of literature was indulged; and the sphere in which she moved was such as to increase her taste for its pursuits.' In the literary circles of Lichfield, the celebrated Dr. Johnson occasionally appeared: but, as the biographer remarks,

'He seems, in some respects, to have shared the fate of a prophet in his own country. Neither Dr. Darwin nor Miss Seward were [was] partial to the great moralist. There was, perhaps, some aristocratic prejudice in their dislike, for the despotic manners of Dr. Johnson were least likely to be tolerated where the lowness of his origin was in fresh recollection. At the same time, Miss Seward was always willing to do justice to his native benevolence, and to the powerful grasp of his intellectual powers, and possessed many anecdotes of his conversation, which had escaped his most vigilant recorders. These she used to tell with great humour, and with a very striking imitation of the sage's peculiar voice, gesture, and manner of delivery.'

In her letters, Miss S. accounts for her dislike by other reasons than aristocratic prejudice, and reasons which are *not* assigned might have strengthened her prejudice. Lady Miller's Bath Easton Vase is supposed to have awakened the poetical exertions of Miss S., after they had been long suspended; and the applause which she received from the circle to which she was introduced, in consequence of Lady M.'s romantic institution, is said to have given her courage to launch her essays from the press. The elegiacs on Cook and André (the editor says 'André and Cook,' but the poem on the great navigator appeared first,) were published perhaps with some assurance of success, after the author had sent several prize-poems to the Bath Easton Urn; and the mode in which they were received was sufficiently encouraging. The acquisition of fame is generally followed by an augmentation of literary friends; and, as 'a love and admiration for existing genius was a leading feature in her character,' Miss S. highly prized those distinguished men who now courted her acquaintance. Her letters bear ample testimony to the warmth of her attachments; and, as a proof of the enthusiasm

of her friendship, her biographer records her offer to Lady Northesk to furnish from her own veins a quantity of her blood to be injected into those of her Ladyship, on a suggestion to this effect by Dr. Darwin. The experiment, indeed, was never made: but the proposition on the part of Miss S. was truly noble.

After the death of her mother in 1780, the care of the surviving parent devolved on Miss S.; and we know from her letters with what anxious sollicitude she watched over his couch for ten years: for though Mr. Seward was reduced to a state of second childhood, by frequent paralytic and apoplectic attacks, he was not dismissed from this stage of existence till 1790. Miss S., being then left with an easy independent fortune, 'continued to inhabit the Bishop's Palace at Lichfield, which had long been her father's residence, and was her's till her death.' That confinement which her father's illness occasioned was propitious to the Muse; and besides various occasional pieces, she published several of the works which we have already enumerated. Of their dates, Mr. S. gives only those of *Louisa*, the *Original Sonnets*, and the *Life of Darwin*, which tally with our record. Particular mention is made of the collection of Original Sonnets; not only because they were intended to restore the strict rules of the legitimate Sonnet, but because, as her biographer justly remarks, 'they contain some beautiful specimens of that species of composition.' To her translations, or rather paraphrases, of Horace, published with the Sonnets, he extends very slender praise.

So far the narrative has as much sunshine thrown over it as usually belongs to our imperfect state. If Miss S. had her trials, she had also her enjoyments. She lived like a gentlewoman, was celebrated as a poet, had many friends, and enjoyed a tolerable share of health. Now, however, she was verging to what an old lady of our acquaintance termed "the shady side of sixty:" age was approaching with declining health; and the death of friends summoned her to prepare for her own: yet her zeal in the cause of literature and poetry remained unabated; and to this zeal Mr. W. Scott owed his being sought out by the fair subject of this memoir. Of the impressions which an interview made, his own words will best give an idea:

'In summer 1807, the editor, upon his return from London, visited Miss Seward, with whom he had corresponded occasionally for some years. Robertson observes, that, in a female reign, the queen's personal charms are a subject of importance; and, as the same rule may apply to the case of a female author, this may be no improper place to mention the impression which her appearance and conversation were calculated to make upon a stranger. — They were, indeed, well worth a longer pilgrimage. Miss Seward, when young, must

must have been exquisitely beautiful; for, in advanced age, the regularity of her features, the fire and expression of her countenance, gave her the appearance of beauty, and almost of youth. Her eyes were auburn, of the precise shade and hue of her hair, and possessed great expression. In reciting, or in speaking with animation, they appeared to become darker; and, as it were, to flash fire. I should have hesitated to state the impression which this peculiarity made upon me at the time, had not my observation been confirmed by that of the first actress of this or any other age, with whom I lately happened to converse on our deceased friend's expressive powers of countenance. — Miss Seward's tone of voice was melodious, guided by excellent taste, and well suited to reading and recitation, in which she willingly exercised it. She did not sing, nor was she a great proficient in music, though very fond of it, having studied it later in life than is now usual. Her stature was tall, and her form was originally elegant; but having broken the *patella* of the knee by a fall in the year 1768, she walked with pain and difficulty, which increased with the pressure of years.

'The great command of literary anecdote which Miss Seward possessed, her ready perception both of the serious and ludicrous, and her just observation and original taste, rendered her society delightful. She entered into every topic with the keenness and vivacity of youth, and it was difficult to associate the idea of advanced years either with her countenance or conversation. The possessor of such quick feelings seldom escapes the portion of pain with which all earthly good is alloyed and tempered. With the warmest heart for her friends, and an unbounded enthusiasm in their service, Miss Seward united a sensibility to coldness, or to injuries, real or supposed, which she permitted to disturb her more than was consistent with prudence or with happiness. The same tone of mind rendered her jealous of critical authority, when exercised over her own productions, or those of her friends.'

Of her irritability on the subject of public criticism, her letters form abundant evidence. Flattered by her friends into a very high conceit of the soundness of her judgment and the correctness of her taste, she could not tolerate the suggestion of the reviewer, that any thing in her poems could be improved; though her present editor is very ready to admit that her taste was dazzled by the splendor of florid description, lofty metaphor, and bold personification, and that the simplicity of her style was impaired by inversion, as well as by a too great fondness for compound epithets.—Abstaining now from remarks of this kind, let us proceed to the melancholy close of her history. She had been occupied for a year or two before her interview with Mr. Scott in arranging and preparing her poems for the press, meaning herself to superintend their publication: but rapidly-declining health frustrated her purposes.

'In harvest, 1807, she was assailed by a scorbutic disorder, which affected her blood and whole system in a degree most painfully irritating, banishing sleep, and rendering waking hours almost intolerable.—

Her

Her spirit continued, however, to struggle against its assaults, and she entered, by advice of her physicians, upon a course of alterative medicine, which, it was supposed, might alleviate or remove her complaint. But the disorder proved invincible; and, in March 1809, the editor had the pain of receiving the last farewell of his honoured friend. It is written at intervals, and the hand-writing gradually degenerates from the distinct and beautiful manuscript which Miss Seward used to write, into a scrawl so feebly traced, as to be nearly illegible.'

The conclusion of this letter we shall transcribe, with the remark that follows:

"Monday, 13th March.

"So far was written Monday the 6th of this month, when again the lethargy crept on. I fell asleep, and awoke in a raging fever and high delirium. Next day, after a dreadful night, the physician ordered me to lose six ounces of blood, and that not in the slightest degree abating the fever, he took six ounces more on the eve, and all without effect. I feel all the props of my life giving way; and probably this is the last time I shall ever write any thing in the shape of a letter; but I have procured a frank, and am unwilling it should be useless. It is for Thursday next. Considering my pains, my raging thirst, my utter debility, it would be a mercy if I should not be in existence on that day.

"If I knew where to find you, I would send the copy of Mundy's Poems, but I am loth to put you to the expence of its carriage, except I should send it to you in London. I am not able to add more than what I think will be my last benediction on you and yours. O! what a blessing is a sudden death! I always prayed for it, but am not worthy to have my prayer granted.

"I thank you for all your kindness, and for the delightful hours your talents have given me. — Affectionately your friend,

"A. Seward."

"It is Thursday, and each intervening day since I closed my letter has taken large death-strides upon me."

'This melancholy letter was too true an augury of the event which it anticipated. Upon Thursday the 23d of March, 1809, Miss Seward was seized with an universal stupor, which continued until the 25th, at six o'clock in the evening, when she expired. Her friends, a term which comprehends many names distinguished in British literature, must long lament this accomplished woman.'

'Accomplished' she certainly was, and her name will stand high among the literary females of Great Britain. Throughout this memoir, Miss Seward is considered merely as a writer: but, had her biographer chosen to enlarge on the circumstances of her life, as they are introduced or displayed in her letters, he would have more effectually gratified public curiosity, and given us an opportunity for farther comment. We conclude, however, that Mr. Scott had his reasons for the course which he pursued.

Precisely in the same way as the MS. volumes of letters were bequeathed to Mr. Constable, the MS. compositions in

verse

verse and prose, which were meant to constitute a miscellaneous edition of her works, were left by will to Mr. Scott; and in both instances a posthumous letter was addressed to her future editors, containing directions for regulating their conduct. With the copies of poems, published and unpublished, were bequeathed a collection of juvenile letters, from the year 1762 to 1768, four sermons, a critical dissertation, &c.

Though the editor has in every material respect punctually complied with the wishes of his deceased friend, he has with great judgment and propriety exercised that discretionary power which was reposed in him; suppressing some compositions, and giving only extracts from the literary correspondence. For the credit of the lady, Mr. S. tells us that every line in his possession might have been published with honour to her who bequeathed the MSS.: but, if the four sermons in the collection were any of those which she had given to young clergymen, we must think that it was not very honourable in Miss Seward to leave them to be claimed as her compositions after her decease. As to the letters, from which extracts are here made, the editor's reasons for suppressing certain parts will be considered as valid; since we are not justified, merely for the purpose of gratifying curiosity, in drawing the veil from the incidents of private life, and in wounding the feelings of persons now alive by making the passions, prejudices, and little foibles of their early career pass in review before the public. Names are therefore concealed; and the literary correspondence, from which we hasten to select some passages, must be regarded only as forming 'a pleasing register of her sentiments, her feelings, and her affections.'

The first letter (or rather extract) is dated Lichfield, October 1762, when the fair writer must have been in her 17th year. It contains her sentiments on the interesting subjects of Love and Friendship:

'I must not permit you to suppose that my youthful, perhaps enthusiastic credulity, extends so far as to adopt the idea, either in friendship or love, of the one only kindred spirit destined to subdue our hearts, if of the other sex, or to engross our whole stock of amity, if of our own; but I do religiously believe that nature, or rather the God of nature, has formed the human mind into different classes, and that there can be no enduring happiness in any connection for dispositions which are not of the same order of mind.

'In love, the impermanent pleasures of the eye eternally mislead uncongenial spirits into bands which are legally indissoluble. Hence that matrimonial infelicity which we often see exist between persons, neither of whom are unamiable; where each, in a better-suited connection, might have found that comfort which they lost, by not attending to the dissimilarity of their tastes and pursuits; a dissimilarity which ought

ought to have shewn them the impossibility of finding it in each other's society, and have restrained them from wandering out of their own class.

'Friendship, less influenced than love by the intoxication of the eye, is less apt to lead the soul out of her bounds; yet sometimes, in the choice of friends, even thinking minds are dazzled by the glitter of superficial attractions, and caught by the fascination of a smile; and oftener still, as I before observed, circumstances of convenience, consciousness of obligation, or reverence for imputed virtues, shall over-rule the want of native sympathy in the formation of friendship.

'Such friendship, however, is mighty apt to be suddenly dissolved. Their acquaintance wonder, and the parties themselves wonder at the ease with which they had mutually renounced communication, that, from its frequency, might well be supposed to have been important to their happiness. But, in reality, there is little marvel in the matter. Friendship not having, like marriage, a legal indissolubility, the connection which convenience or accident had formed, we are not to wonder if convenience or accident dissolves.'

In a postscript, she charges the female friend, to whom she unbosoms herself, to throw aside the New Eloisa; yet, in the following letters, she comments on this dangerous novel, and delivers opinions which rarely occur, we believe, in the epistles of a lady at the age of nineteen. Could she have had experience enough to justify the following observations?

'Habits of sensuality once established, the heart becomes cold and impenetrable amidst the indelicate indulgence of the senses, and loses all power of sympathizing truly and equally with the genuine and joy-bestowing tenderness of uncorrupted sensibility. The libertine is not aware how much of real voluptuousness his libertinism costs him.

'Were I a parent, I would infinitely rather that my son's talents were buried in obscurity with a breeding wife and a scanty fortune, dead to wealth and fame, but alive, in every nerve, to domestic comfort and affection, than see him in an elegant drawing-room, yawning under the ennui of exhausted pleasures, and in the (at best to him) insipid society of a rich wife, whose (perhaps) amiable qualities not having previously seized his heart, and warmed his imagination, want power to inspirit his attention or awaken his tenderness.

'Such lethargy is an incurable disease of the soul, and would prove more fatal to his virtue and to his happiness, than all the thorns of care and anxiety with which inauspicious fortune might surround the roses of his youth.

'As a preservation from such wretched insensibility, when I have sons, they shall read Eloisa; but, for my daughters, should I have daughters, amidst the pure, the gentle, the affectionate sentiments which their domestic education must necessarily inspire, they will have too much sensibility not to render an increase of it by such means, dangerous to their peace, perhaps to their fame and safety. Without having read the softening Eloisa, they will bring a larger portion of tenderness to the arms of their husband, than they can have a tolerable chance of seeing returned by the modern race of men.'

We

We do not perceive on what ground this series of letters is called *Literary Correspondence*, as distinguished from those which have been published by Mr. Constable. Indeed, the six volumes already noticed by us (in October and November last) have more of a literary complexion than those which were bequeathed to Mr. Scott. Since, however, this is the epithet chosen in the present instance, our next extract shall be that in which Shakspeare and Milton are contrasted:

'I conceive the possibility even of people who have a tuneless ear, and an insensible imagination, receiving genuine pleasure from Shakespeare's plays, provided such people possess strong common sense; and this notwithstanding the higher poetic graces of figure and allusion, of which they can have so little comprehension, and in which the plays of Shakespeare so luxuriantly abound; since, to incident, to character, to humour, sometimes to wit, and always to the force of those passions, strongly delineated, and whose influence is universal, the merest prosers are awakened. No palate, capable of relishing any intellectual food, but may feed with avidity at the table of that mighty master, upon which kings and pedlars, ghosts and jesters, witches and tapsters, pathos and obscenity, murder and fun, are served up in exhaustless variety.

'It is not so with Milton, or the Johnson of this century. Neither of their writings contain any of that universally acceptable ingredient, humour.—Their pens always remain in the higher latitudes of abstract ideas, of ornamented and figurative language. The comprehension of the prosers has neither respiration nor inspiration on these mental heights.'

Temptations to make farther transcripts present themselves: but we must curb our inclination. Yet we cannot pass over this part of volume I. without presenting our readers with the interesting information which Miss Seward communicates respecting the village of Eyam, in which she was born:

'The village of Eyam was one of the last, if it were not the very last place in England, visited by that dire contagion in 1666, the year after that in which, in the city of London, Death, on his pale horse, trampled on three thousand victims in one ghastly night. Mr. Mompesson was then rector of Eyam, and in the vigour of his youth. He had married a beautiful young lady, by whom he had a boy and girl of three and four years old. The plague was brought thither in patterns of cloth sent from London to a tailor in our village. It raged with great violence, and swept away four-fifths of the inhabitants. This village is now much more thinly peopled, owing to the exhausted state of the lead-mines. Their wealth, during the last century, and early part of the present, occasioned the environs of Eyam, their thick-sown little towns and hamlets, to swarm with inhabitants.'

Three original letters of Mr. Mompesson are given in the subsequent pages, to which we refer our readers: but the following

following passage must not be omitted, though we have seen the fact recorded in other places.

'In the summer of 1757, five labouring men, inhabitants of Eyam, were digging amongst the plague-graves on the heathy mountain above the village, to make potatoe-ground for a cottage which had been built there. They came to something which had the appearance of having once been linen. Conscious of its situation, they instantly buried it again; but, in a few days they all sickened of a putrid fever, and three out of the five died. It was so contagious, that the sick could procure no attendance out of their own family. The disease proved mortal to seventy persons of Eyam.'

This anecdote tends to shew of how very malignant a nature was the matter which produced the plague in 1666: but, if the vestiges of clothes which had lain in the ground for nearly a century could revive this malady, it is singular that no melancholy effects of this kind attended the late removal of Holiwell and Whitechapel Mounts.

At last, we come to Miss Seward's poetry, the mass of which is very considerable. On every occasion that presented itself, she courted the Muse; and her verse is, in general, so much above mediocrity, that it must not be said that she courted in vain. Yet her kindest friends will allow that, if she had been more fastidious, and had attended more to quality than to quantity, she would have obtained a higher rank among the poets of Britain. She is careless in her rhymes; indulges in aukward, unauthorized compound epithets; and very frequently mistakes reminiscence for original thought. If we read without meeting any thing that excites objection, we read also without wishing to read again. With a mind stored by extensive application with a vigorous intellect, with a play of fancy, and with a command of words, Miss Seward nevertheless seems to want that *eloquentia summa*, and those *dulcia*, which communicate to poetry its fascination. In this collection of poems will be found all the publications which we have enumerated above; and our appreciation of their merit will be seen by turning to those places in our volumes to which we have made references. Of the pieces included in this miscellany, which exceed 300 in number, it is impossible to give any general character, and not easy to satisfy ourselves in making selections. We shall not, however, in offering fair specimens of her poetic talent, take her translations of the 1st and 137th Psalms, since these are poor indeed: but, to appease, if possible, her angry ghost, we shall select two or three of her short pieces:

'ELEGY

'ELEGY WRITTEN AT THE SEA-SIDE, AND ADDRESSED TO MISS HONORA SNEYD.

'I write, Honora, on the sparkling sand!—
The envious waves forbid the trace to stay:
Honora's name again adorns the strand!
Again the waters bear their prize away!

'So Nature wrote her charms upon thy face,
The cheek's light bloom, the lip's envermeil'd dye,
And every gay, and every witching grace,
That Youth's warm hours, and Beauty's stores supply.

'But Time's stern tide, with cold Oblivion's wave,
Shall soon dissolve each fair, each fading charm;
E'en Nature's self, so powerful, cannot save
Her own rich gifts from this o'erwhelming harm.

'Love and the Muse can boast superior power;
Indelible the letters they shall frame;
They yield to no inevitable hour,
But will on lasting tablets write thy name.'

We copy the following, since it is characterized by Mr. Walter Scott as exhibiting not the "tiara and glittering zone" of the priestess of Apollo, but the more natural effusions of real passion:

'SONG.

'From thy waves, stormy Lannow, I fly;
From the rocks that are lash'd by their tide;
From the maid, whose cold bosom, relentless as they,
Has wreck'd my warm hopes by her pride!—
Yet lonely and rude as the scene,
Her smile to that scene could impart
A charm, that might rival the bloom of the vale—
But away, thou fond dream of my heart!
From thy rocks, stormy Lannow, I fly!

'Now the blasts of the winter come on,
And the waters grow dark as they rise!
But 'tis well!—they resemble the sullen disdain
That has lour'd in those insolent eyes.
Sincere were the sighs they repress,
But they rose in the days that are flown!
Ah, nymph! unrelenting and cold as thou art,
My spirit is proud as thine own.
From thy rocks, stormy Lannow, I fly!

'Lo! the wings of the sea-fowl are spread
To escape the loud storm by their flight;
And these caves will afford them a gloomy retreat
From the winds and the billows of night;

Like

Like them, to the home of my youth,
Like them, to its shades I retire;
Receive me, and shield my vex'd spirit, ye groves,
From the pangs of insulted desire!
To thy rocks, stormy Lannow, adieu!'

The best of Miss Seward's epitaphs is the subsequent: it was penned *con amore:*

'SACRED TO THE MEMORY OF JOHN SAVILLE, FORTY-EIGHT YEARS VICAR-CHORAL OF THAT PLACE, DIED AUGUST 2, 1803, AGED 67.

'Once in the heart, cold in yon narrow cell,
Did each mild grace, each ardent virtue dwell;
Kind aid, kind tears, for others' want and woe,
For others' joy, the gratulating glow;
And skill to mark, and eloquence to claim
For genius in each art, the palm of fame.
Ye choral walls, ye lost the matchless song
When the last silence stiffen'd on that tongue.
Ah! who may now your pealing anthems raise
In soul-pour'd tones of fervent pray'r and praise?
Saville, thy lips, twice on thy final day,
Here breath'd, in health and hope, the sacred lay.
Short pangs, ere night, their fatal signal gave,
Quench'd the bright Sun for thee — and op'd the grave!
Now, from that once fair form and beaming face,
Insatiate worms the lingering likeness chase;
But thy pure spirit fled from pains and fears,
To sinless, — changeless, — everlasting spheres.
Sleep then, pale, mortal frame, in yon low shrine,
"Till angels wake thee with a note like thine!"'

We have the inverted phrases of 'groves among,' 'woods among,' 'streams among,' &c. &c., occurring more frequently than it ought in this collection; and it shews that Miss Seward, when she wrote new poems, was not anxious to avoid the repetition of old rhymes.

In delineations of the picturesque, or of rural scenery, this lady's Muse is much occupied. We give, as an example of this kind, her descriptive poem of the village in which she was born, and which she often visited with enthusiasm:

'EYAM*.

'For one short week I leave, with anxious heart,
Source of my filial cares, the full of days,
Lur'd by the promise of harmonic art
To breathe her Handel's soul-exalting lays.

Pensive

'*This poem was written August 1788, on a journey through Derbyshire, to a music-meeting at Sheffield. The author's father was then Rector of Eyam, an extensive village, that runs along a mountainous terrace, in one of the highest parts of the Peak. She

Pensive I trace the Derwent's amber wave *,
Foaming through umbrag'd banks, or view it lave
The soft, romantic vallies, high o'er-peer'd
By hills and rocks, in savage grandeur rear'd.
Not two short miles from thee can I refrain
Thy haunts, my native Eyam, long unseen?—
Thou and thy lov'd inhabitants, again
Shall meet my transient gaze.—Thy rocky screen,
Thy airy cliffs I mount; and seek thy shade,
Thy roofs, that brow the steep, romantic glade;
But, while on me the eyes of friendship glow,
Swell my pain'd sighs, my tears spontaneous flow.

'In scenes paternal, not beheld through years,
Nor view'd, till now, but by a father's side,
Well might the tender, tributary tears,
From keen regrets of duteous fondness glide!
Its pastor, to this human-flock no more
Shall the long flight of future days restore!
Distant he droops,—and that once gladdening eye
Now languid gleams, e'en when his friends are nigh.

'Through this known walk, where weedy gravel lies,
Rough, and unsightly;—by the long, coarse grass
Of the once smooth, and vivid green, with sighs
To the deserted rectory I pass;—
Stray through the darken'd chambers' naked bound,
Where childhood's earliest, liveliest bliss I found;
How chang'd, since erst, the lightsome walls beneath,
The social joys did their warm comforts breathe!

'Ere yet I go, who may return no more,
That sacred pile, 'mid yonder shadowy trees,
Let me revisit!—Ancient, massy door,
Thou gratest hoarse!—my vital spirits freeze,
Passing the vacant pulpit, to the space
Where humble rails the decent altar grace,
And where my infant sister's ashes sleep,
Whose loss I left the childish sport to weep.

---

was born there, and there past the first seven years of her life, and often, in future periods of her youth and riper years, visited the place with her father, on several weeks residence. The middle part of the village is built on the edge of a deep dell, which has very picturesque and beautiful features.

'* *Amber wave.*—From the peculiar nature of the clay on the mountains from which it descends, the river Derwent has a yellow tint, that well becomes the dark foliage on its banks, and the foam produced by a rocky channel.

'Now the low beams, with paper garlands hung *,
In memory of some village youth, or maid,
Draw the soft tear, from thrill'd remembrance sprung,
How oft my childhood mark'd that tribute paid.
The gloves, suspended by the garland's side,
White as its snowy flowers, with ribbons tied; —
Dear village, long these wreaths funereal spread,
Simple memorials of thy early dead!

'But Oh! thou blank, and silent pulpit! — thou,
That with a father's precepts, just, and bland,
Did'st win my ear, as reason's strength'ning glow
Show'd their full value, now thou seem'st to stand
Before my sad, suffus'd, and trembling gaze,
The dreariest relic of departed days.
Of eloquence paternal, nervous, clear,
Dim Apparition thou — and bitter is my tear!'

The last poem in the collection, intitled *Remembrance*, has some good stanzas: but we must desist from transcribing, and shall conclude this article with observing that, if we can be supposed not to have done full justice to Miss Seward, we have enabled her, by ample extracts, to do justice to herself.

ART. III. *Political Essay on the Kingdom of New Spain*, by Alexander de Humboldt, with physical Sections and Maps, founded on astronomical Observations and trigonometrical and barometrical Measurements. Translated from the original French, by John Black. Vols. III. and IV. 8vo. pp. 900. 1l. 11s. 6d. Boards. Longman and Co. 1811.

WE embrace as early an opportunity as our other duties have permitted for investigating the literary labours of this indefatigable traveller. In the first two volumes, which we reported in our numbers for December and January last, M. de Humboldt enlarged on the state of society in New Spain, on the physical aspect of the country, and on the nature of its agricultural produce. In the present volumes, the latter subject is, in some measure, continued: but the great topic of discussion is the state of the mines; though the nature of the climate, the progress of inland communication, the condition of the manufactures, the revenue, the population, and the military force, are all discussed in turn. We wish that we could add that any symp-

---

'* *Now the low beams.*—The ancient customs of hanging a garland of white roses, made of writing paper, and a pair of white gloves over the pew of the unmarried villagers who die in the flower of their age, is observed to this day in the village of Eyam, and in most other villages and little towns in the Peak.'

toms of improved method are discoverable as the work advances: but the critic, who undertakes to analyze the mass of matter accumulated in these volumes, must begin by arming himself with a portion of that patience of which the distinguished traveller had so much need in his perilous wanderings. It unluckily happens, too, that neither the translation nor the printing of the book has been conducted so as to lessen the obscurity attendant on the hasty composition of the original. — We proceed to make an abstract of the most striking observations in the two volumes, and shall class them under such heads as appear most likely to give them connection and perspicuity.

Mines, and mode of working them.—M. de Humboldt, having been engaged from his youth in the study of mining, and having had for several years the benefit of the practical direction of a German mine, was particularly qualified to investigate the subterraneous labours of Spanish America. Yet, with all his predilection for the occupation, he is aware of the superior advantage of other branches of industry, and accounts it a great error in the Mexicans that they make mining an almost exclusive pursuit. The practice of the art is of very old standing in Mexico; since Cortez found that the Indians were not contented with the gold and silver discovered in the beds of rivers, but had gone so far as to cut galleries and dig pits of communication and ventilation. The early labours of the European colonists were thus greatly aided by the local knowlege of the natives. Now that the ingenuity of Europeans has been exercised during three centuries on the mines, the number of mining tracts in New Spain is computed at 500; and taking six mines on an average to each spot or district, we have a total of 3000 mines. With regard to elevation, a remarkable difference prevails between the mines of Europe and those of America: while the former are only from 1200 to 2000 feet above the level of the sea, the latter are often at a height of 8 or 10,000 feet, and approach the region of perpetual snow. This statement, however, holds true more particularly in Peru; the chief mines of Mexico, as Guanaxuato, Zacatecas, and Catorce, being situated in a temperate region. These three are so productive as to yield more than half the silver exported from Mexico; and Guanaxuato, in particular, is computed to supply a fourth of the produce of the Mexican mines, or a sixth of those of all America. It is remarkable that the metallic wealth of Mexico and Peru is found at nearly an equal distance from the equator on either side, namely from 20 to 25 degrees. Silver is the predominating metal in the Trans-Atlantic continent; since, while gold is scarcely more abundant in New Spain than in Hungary

and Transylvania, the quantity of silver annually extracted from the Mexican mines is ten times greater than that which is furnished by all Europe. It must not, however, be inferred, from the magnitude of the produce, that in the mineral the silver bears a considerable proportion to the earth. Though it is a very common notion in Europe that masses of native silver are frequent in Mexico and Peru, and though one author (the Jesuit *Och*) has gone so far as to assert that the veins are not deemed worth the trouble of working unless the minerals contain a third of their weight in silver, the fact is that, in most mines, the silver does not form a hundredth, frequently not a two-hundredth part of the mineral. It is not therefore from the intrinsic wealth of the ore, but from its quantity, and the facility of working it, that the American mines are so valuable.

Persons, says M. de H., who know no other mines than those of Europe, would be greatly struck with the contrast, in point of magnitude, which is afforded by the mines of America. Could the former be transported to the works of the districts of Guanaxuato, Catorce, or the Real del Monte, their produce would appear comparatively as insignificant as the height of the Pyrenees contrasted with that of the Cordilleras. The mines of Guanaxuato have been worked above two centuries, and are computed to have produced, in the course of that time, nearly sixty millions sterling. Although Potosi has on the whole sent forth a far larger quantity, the present produce of Guanaxuato is by much the greater of the two. Many of the mines are wrought to the depth of 12 and 1500 feet, though in that case a decrease of the produce generally occurs, as well as a great augmentation of the expence. At Valenciana, one of the richest mines in the district of Guanaxuato, they have of late years begun to dig a new pit, to come down, in a perpendicular line, to the bottom of the works, a depth of not less than 1680 feet. Its object is to diminish the labour of the porters, who are now, to the number of nearly 1000, employed in carrying the mineral to the upper stations; and it is calculated to be finished in the year 1815, after more than twenty years' labour. The circumference of this remarkable cavity is 87 feet, its walling is very beautiful, and its computed expence is above 200,000l. sterling. It may be useful to contrast the state of the mine of Valenciana with one of the principal mines of Europe.

'Comparative table of the Mines of America and Europe.

	America.	Europe.
Average year at the end of the eighteenth century.	Mine of Valenciana; the richest of the Mexican Mines. At the surface, 2320 metres above the level of the sea.	Mine of Himmelsfürst, the richest of the Saxon Mines. At the surface, 410 metres above the level of the sea.
Metallic produce	240,000lbs. of silver	6600lbs. of silver.
Total expences of the mine	£ 210,000 sterling	£ 10,000
Net profit of the share-holders	£ 130,000	£ 4,000
The cwt. of minerals contained in silver	4 ounces	From 6 to 7 ounces silver.
Number of workmen	3100 Indians and Mestizoes, 1800 of whom are in the interior of the mine	700 miners, of whom 550 are in the interior of the mine.
Wages of the miners	From 4 to 5 shillings	nine-pence.
Water	No water	Eight cubic feet per minute. Two hydraulical wheels.
Depth of the mine	nearly 1600 feet	above 1000 feet.'

The mine of Catorce was discovered so lately as 1778, and was worked with great advantage during twenty years; at the end of which a remarkable falling off took place in the value of the minerals. The rude mode of working mines in America is in nothing more remarkable than in the embarrassment produced by water, after the workmen have dug to a certain depth. In some mines, they have no pumps, and draw up the water by the miserable expedient of bags suspended by ropes. In others, they are beginning to employ machinery: but it is of a very imperfect cast; and the machine *à colonne d'eau*, so advantageously calculated for mines, has been erected on one spot only.

'When we take,' says M. de Humboldt, 'a general view of the mining operations of New Spain, and compare them with those of the mines of Freiberg, the Hartz, and Schemnitz, we are surprised at still finding in its infancy, in America, an art which has been practised for these three centuries, and on which, according to the vulgar prejudice, the prosperity of these ultramarine establishments depends.—The imperfect knowledge which was possessed in the 16th century

relative to mining and smelting, in Germany, Biscay, and the Belgic provinces, rapidly passed into Mexico and Peru, on the first *colonisation* of these countries; but since that period, to the reign of Charles the Third, the American miners have learned hardly any thing from the Europeans, but the blowing up with powder those rocks which resist the *pointrole*. This King and his successor have shewn a praise-worthy desire of imparting to the colonies the advantages derived by Europe, from the improvement in machinery, the progress of chemical science, and their application to metallurgy. German miners have been sent at the expence of the court to Mexico, Peru, and the kingdom of New Grenada; but their knowledge has been of no utility, because the mines of Mexico are considered as the property of the individuals who direct the operations, without the government being allowed to exercise the smallest influence.'—

'In the greatest number of the Mexican mines the operations with the *pointrole*, which requires the greatest address on the part of the workman, are very well executed. It is to be wished that the *mallet* was somewhat less heavy; it is the same instrument which the German miners used in the time of Charles the Fifth. Small moveable forges are placed in the interior of the mines, to reforge the point of the pointroles when they are unfit for working. I reckoned sixteen of these forges in the mine of Valenciana; and in the district of Guanaxuato the smallest mines have at least one or two. This arrangement is very useful, particularly in mines which employ even 1500 workmen, and in which there is consequently an immense consumption of steel. I could not praise the method of *blowing with powder*. The holes for the reception of the cartridges are generally too deep, and the miners are not sufficiently careful in *stripping* the part of the rock intended to yield to the explosion. A great waste of powder is consequently occasioned by these defects.'—

'The greatest fault observable in the mines of New Spain, and which renders the working of them extremely expensive, is the want of communication between the different *works*. They resemble ill-constructed buildings, where to pass from one adjoining room to another we must go round the whole house.—As subterraneous geometry has been entirely neglected in Mexico, two works in a labyrinth of *cross galleries*, and interior pits, may happen to be very near one another, without its being possible to perceive it.—A miner brought up in the mines of Freiberg, and accustomed to see so many ingenious means of conveyance practised, can hardly conceive that, in the Spanish colonies, where the poverty of the minerals is united to a great abundance of them, all the metal which is taken from the vein should be carried on the backs of men. The Indian *tenateros*, who may be considered as the beasts of burden of the mines of Mexico, remain loaded with a weight of from 225 to 350 pounds for a space of six hours.—These *tenateros** carry the minerals in bags. To prevent their shoulders from

* At Paris, the porters called *Forts de la Halle*, are generally loaded with bags of flour, which weigh 325 pounds (350lb. avoird. *Trans.*) To be received in their corporation, a man must carry, for twenty-five minutes, a weight of 850 pounds, (916lb. avoird. *Trans.*)'

being

being hurt, (for the miners are generally naked to the middle) they place a woollen covering (*frisada*) under this bag. We meet in the mines with files of fifty or sixty of these porters, among whom there are men above sixty, and boys of ten or twelve years of age. In ascending the stairs they throw the body forwards, and rest on a staff which is generally not more than a foot in length. They walk in a zig-zag direction, because they have found from long experience (as they affirm) that their respiration is less impeded, when they traverse obliquely the current of air which enters the pits from without.'—

'An extraordinary event happened on the 16th February 1802. The mines of Tehuilotepec, like those of Guautla, have at all times wanted the necessary water to put in motion the *bocards*, and other machines, which prepare the minerals for the process of amalgamation. The most abundant stream used in the works issued from a cavern in the lime rock, called the *Cueva de San Felipe*. This rivulet was lost in the night between the 16th and 17th of February, and five days afterwards a new spring was found at five leagues distance from the cavern, near the village of Platanillo. It has been proved by researches of the greatest interest for geology, of which I shall speak in another place, that there exists in this country, in the bosom of calcareous mountains, a series of caverns and natural galleries, and that subterraneous rivers, like those of the county of Derby in England, traverse those galleries, which communicate with one another.—It is in the drawing off the water that we particularly feel the indispensible necessity of having plans drawn up by *subterraneous surveyors* (*geometres*). Instead of stopping the course of the water, and bringing it by the shortest road to the pit where the machines are placed, they frequently precipitate it to the bottom of the mine, to be afterwards drawn off at a great expence. Moreover, in the district of mines of Guanaxuato, nearly two hundred and fifty workmen perished in the space of a few minutes on the 14th June 1780, because, not having measured the distance between the works of San Ramon and the *old works of Santo Christo de Burgos*, they had imprudently approached this last mine while carrying on a gallery of investigation in that direction. The water, with which the works of Santo Christo were full, flowed with impetuosity through this new gallery of San Ramon into the mine of Valenciana. Many of the workmen perished by the effect of the sudden compression of the air, which in taking vent threw (to immense distances) beams and large pieces of rocks. This accident would not have happened, if in regulating the operations they could have consulted a plan of the mines.'

Our readers will learn with great satisfaction that no such thing as compulsory labour is now known in the mines of Spanish America:

'The labour of a miner is entirely free throughout the whole kingdom of New Spain; and no Indian or Mestizoe can be forced to dedicate themselves to the working of mines. The miners, *tenateros* and *faeneros*, occupied in *transporting* the minerals to the *place of assemblage*, (*despachos*) frequently gain more than six francs per day, of six hours. Honesty is by *no means* so common among the Mexican

as among the German or Swedish miners; and they make use of a thousand tricks to steal very rich minerals. As they are almost naked, and are searched on leaving the mine in the most indecent manner, they conceal small morsels of native silver, or red sulphuretted and muriated silver in their hair, under their arm-pits, and in their mouths. — The quantity of silver extracted from the minerals by means of mercury, is in the proportion of 3¼ to 1 of that produced by smelting.—In times of peace, amalgamation gains a gradual ascendancy over smelting, which is generally badly managed. As wood is becoming yearly more scarce on the ridge of the Cordilleras, which is the most populous part, the diminution of the produce of smelting is very advantageous to the manufactories which require a great consumption of combustibles. In times of war the want of mercury arrests the progress of amalgamation, and compels the miner to endeavour to improve the process of *smelting*. —The Mexican miners do not appear to follow any very fixed principle, in the selection of the minerals submitted to smelting or amalgamation; for we see them smelt in one district of mines the same mineral substances which in another they believe can only be managed with mercury. It is frequently only the abundance of mercury, and the facility in procuring it, which determine the miner in the choice of his method.'—

'It remains for us to touch upon a very important problem, that of the quantity of mercury annually required by the mines of New Spain. Mexico and Peru depend very much upon the abundance and low price of the mercury for the quantity of silver which they produce. When the mercury fails them, which happens often in periods of maritime war, the mines are not so briskly worked; and the mineral accumulates in their hands without their being able to extract the silver from it. — The following table proves the influence of the price of mercury on its consumption. The diminution of this price, and the freedom of trade with all the ports of Spain, have all contributed to the progress of mining.

Periods.	Price of a cwt of mercury.	Total consumption of mercury.
1762 — 1766	82 piastres	35,750 quintals
1767 — 1771	62	42,000
1772 — 1777	62	53,000
1778 — 1782	41	59,000

'From all the researches which I could make, the whole of Spanish America, namely, Mexico, Peru, Chili, and the kingdom of Buenos Ayres, (for elsewhere the process of amalgamation is unknown) annually consume more than 25,000 cwt. of mercury. M. Heron de Villefosse, in an interesting table which contains the quantity of each metal wrought over the whole globe, estimates the mercury annually drawn from the mines of Europe at 36,000 quintals. Hence, going on this data, we find that mercury is after cobalt the rarest of all metals, and that it is even twice as rare as tin.'

The

The chief supply of American mercury was obtained from the mine of Huancavelica in Peru, situated at the extraordinary height of 14,000 feet above the level of the sea. During the long period of two centuries, this mine was worked with great advantage: but the columns of earth, which were left to support its roof, being removed by the inconceivable folly of the intendant and master-miners, the superincumbent mass fell in, and the works have not been subsequently renewed.

Produce of the Mines.—It has been brought forwards as a point of great doubt, and one on which the arguments were equally balanced, whether the amount of mineral produce throughout the world was likely to be augmented or decreased; and it has been contended that it was just as probable that the exhaustion of *old* mines should take place as the discovery of *new*. M. de H. admits of no such doubts with regard to New Spain, but pronounces that the extent of mining labours must increase as the population of the country proceeds, and as geological and chemical knowlege shall be more generally diffused. In late years, the proprietors of mines have formed themselves into a kind of association, having a body of representatives or delegates; and a regular council is holden for their concerns in the city of Mexico. The government, notwithstanding the common notion to the contrary, has not the property of a single mine, but all belong to individuals. Private persons receive from the King a grant of a certain tract of ground in the direction of a vein or bed; and all the different duties which they are now compelled to pay may be computed at eleven and a half per cent. on the silver, and three per cent. on the gold. Any attempt to raise these duties would be, in M. de Humboldt's opinion, very impolitic.

'It is the same,' he says, 'with direct imposts on gold and silver as with the profit which the government attempts to derive from the sale of mercury. The mining operations will increase in proportion as these imposts shall diminish, and as the mercury which is indispensible in the process of amalgamation shall be furnished at a lower price.'

'In the space of a hundred years, the annual produce of the Mexican mines rose from one to nearly five millions sterling. If Peru does not exhibit an equal augmentation of wealth, it is because this unfortunate country has not increased its population, and because, being worse governed than Mexico, industry found more difficulties to overcome. Besides, nature has deposited the precious metals in that country at enormous elevations, in situations where, on account of the very high price of provisions, the working becomes extremely expensive. The abundance of silver is in general such in the chain of the Andes, that when we reflect on the number of mineral depositories which remain untouched, or which have been very superficially wrought, we are tempted to believe, that the Europeans have yet scarcely begun to enjoy the inexhaustible fund of wealth contained in the New World.'

M. de H.

M. de H. has omitted to mention one point of great importance respecting the future extension of mines; namely, that the fall in the value of money will operate as a tax on them, and a tax of which the effect will increase with the amount of their produce. The substitution of bank-paper for cash, a practice likely to become more general throughout Europe in a season of peace, will conduce to the same end. All these circumstances concur to prove how unfit money is for a measure of value in contracts of long duration. When tranquillity shall be at last restored to Europe, we trust that the more enlightened of its governments will admit the propriety of new regulations in this respect; and that the amount of the pecuniary consideration stipulated to be paid in long-standing engagements shall have a reference to the value of the leading commodities of life.

The total supply of precious metals, extracted annually from the American mines, is discussed at great length by the author, but with as little felicity of manner as the rest of the book. Without attempting to digest his long details of local produce, we shall merely submit to our readers the following tables:

Average annual Importation of Gold and Silver from America into Europe.

Periods.	Piastres.
From 1492 to 1500	250,000
1500 — 1545	3,000,000
1545 — 1600	11,000,000
1600 — 1700	16,000,000
1700 — 1750	22,500,000
1750 — 1803	35,300,000

Annual Produce of the Mines of the New Continent, at the beginning of the Nineteenth Century.

	Gold.	Silver.	
	Marcs of Castille.	Marcs of Castille.	Value in Piastres.
Viceroyalty of New Spain	7,000	2,338,220	23,000,000
Viceroyalty of Peru -	3,400	611,090	6,240,000
Capitania General of Chili	12,212	29,700	2,060,000
Viceroyalty of Buenos Ayres	2,200	481,830	4,850,000
Viceroyalty of New Grenada	20,505	- - -	2,990,000
Brasil - - -	20,900	- - -	4,360,000
Total	75,217	3,460,840	43,500,000

Though Asia eventually absorbs a large share of the precious metals, the quantity sent thither directly from Spanish America is small, probably not exceeding 200,000l. or 300,000l. a year. The rest usually went wholly through the medium of Europe until

until within these few years, when the trade from the United States to India and China has become considerable. In the extensive calculations in which M. de Humboldt seems fond of indulging, we find the whole of the metallic currency of Europe computed at three hundred and fifty millions sterling; and the total importation from America, since its discovery, at more than a thousand millions. Taking farther into the account an allowance for the currency of Europe previously to the discovery of America, we shall find that the sum converted into plate, consumed in trinkets, and absorbed in Eastern commerce, is of extraordinary magnitude: not less, probably, than eight hundred millions sterling. At this rate, a small part only of the annual produce of the mines is added to the currency of Europe. The period, at which a depreciation of money was most rapid, was from 1570 to 1600, during the memorable reign of Philip II., who first reaped the full harvest of American treasures. After 1636, the depreciation was not considerable, for nearly a century and a half. The progressive increase of population and commodities appears to have counterbalanced the supply of the mines, till in our days the augmented import of specie, and its diminished use in consequence of the adoption of paper-money, have, with other causes, renewed the rapid depreciation of the 16th century.

Manufactures and Commerce.—The progress of manufactures in Spanish America has been checked by two circumstances,—the ordinary drawbacks on new colonies, and the jealousy of the monopolists in the mother-country. These monopolists consisted, not in the manufacturers of old Spain, but in the merchants of the few maritime towns to which the exclusive commerce was reserved. Yet manufactures to a certain extent have been established in New Spain, consisting chiefly of cloths, and amounting, perhaps, to the annual value of two millions sterling. The probability is that they will proceed in a ratio of rapid increase, since a great part of the inland population is at a distance from the coast. The width of Mexico, and the difficulty of communication between its interior and its maritime parts, make its situation very different from our West Indian or even our North American colonies. Now that the connection with Spain is about to assume a new aspect, and that the discouragement of inland manufacture is at an end, we may expect that things will undergo considerable alteration. — The chief part of the emigrants from Spain have been Biscayans, Catalans, Asturians, and Valencians.—In New Spain, as in several parts of Europe, the manufacture of powder is a royal monopoly: but, it being impracticable in such a tract of country to prevent private establishments, the quantity sold by government is computed

at

at only a fourth of the consumption. This is accordingly a much less lucrative business to the crown than the processes of melting and coining at the royal mint, the annual profit on which is said to exceed 300,000l. sterling.

The cultivation of the sugar-cane has increased considerably in late years, and Vera Cruz now exports 10,000 hogsheads annually. This, however, is a mere trifle compared with the inland consumption; and though changes of produce and manufacture are effected by a slow progress, it cannot be doubted that the maritime provinces of New Spain will ere long raise sugar, coffee, and cotton, at a much cheaper rate than the West India islands. At present, the great obstacle to exportation is the want of roads from the interior, and the uncultivated state of the coast. Sugar is a great article of family-consumption in New Spain; and it is consolatory to think that it is raised by the hands of free labourers.—The culture of cotton has been impeded by the rude state of manufacture, no machines being used to separate the cotton from the seed, and the expence of the carriage being accordingly very material. When we consider the unexampled increase of the growth of cotton in the United States within the last twelve years, we can entertain very little doubt that Carolina, Georgia, and New Spain will in future be the great sources of supply to Europe.—Coffee has been cultivated in New Spain only since the destruction of the plantations of St. Domingo; and, being as yet but little used by the inhabitants, the quantity grown is not considerable. Vanilla, a plant employed to flavour chocolate, is considered as exclusively a Mexican product, and is sold at a high price in Europe. Hitherto, it has been cultivated in a very limited district: but no reason seems to exist which can prevent its being raised any where between the tropics. Tobacco is also a branch of culture which bids fair to increase; because the monopoly, which has hitherto restrained it, must now fall to the ground. The cultivation of indigo takes place, not in the province of Mexico, but in Caraccas and Guatimala.

So little advanced was the state of society in New Spain at the time of the Spanish conquest, that the natives had no domesticated animals; and a numerous class of the community were compelled to earn a livelihood by carrying burdens on the highways. They made no use of their wild oxen or sheep, and the Llama, so well known in Peru, is not found beyond the limits of the southern hemisphere. Since the conquest, oxen, horses, sheep, hogs, and other animals, have been introduced from Europe, and have multiplied surprisingly throughout New Spain; particularly in the vast plains of the interior. Buffon's assertion of the degeneracy of these animals is totally contra-

contradicted by M. de Humboldt. Abundance of horned cattle are found along the eastern coast of Mexico, especially at the mouths of several great rivers, where the pastures bear the appearance of perpetual verdure. Dressed hides, tallow, and soap, are therefore considerable branches of commerce, particularly in the intendancy of Guadalaxara:

'The horses of the northern provinces, and particularly those of New Mexico, are as celebrated for their excellent qualities as the horses of Chili; both descend, as it is pretended, from the Arab race; and they wander wild in herds, in the Savannahs of the *Provincias Internas*. The exportation of these horses to Natchez, and New Orleans, becomes every year of greater importance. Many Mexican families possess in their *Hatos de ganado* from thirty to forty thousand head of horses and oxen. The mules would be still more numerous, if so many of them did not perish on the highways, from the excessive fatigues of journeys of several months. It is reckoned that the commerce of Vera Cruz alone employs annually nearly 70,000 mules. More than 5000 are employed as an object of luxury in the carriages of the city of Mexico.

'The rearing of *sheep* has been wonderfully neglected in New Spain, as well as in all the Spanish colonies of America. It is probable that the first sheep introduced in the 16th century were not of the breed of travelling *Merinos*, and particularly that they were not of the Leon, Segovian, or Sorian breed. Since that time no care has been employed in the amelioration of the breed.'

Another example of the miserable jealousy of the mother-country has been exhibited in the discouragement of the culture of the mulberry, and of the raising of silk-worms. The climate of Mexico would be highly favourable to this branch of industry: but the interest of the Philippine company, in selling Asiatic silks to the Mexicans, has induced government to throw obstacles in the way of the cultivator.—Wax is an object of great consequence in a country in which so much magnificence prevails in the exterior worship. The quantity consumed in the church-festivals is enormous, and is obtained partly from the Havannah and partly from the hives in the peninsula of Yucatan. Cochineal is the commodity next described; (p. 74. 76.) and the trouble of preparing it appears to be so great that, notwithstanding its excessive price, it would scarcely turn to account in countries in which labour is dear.

From these articles, we turn to a very different object of commercial enterprize, the spermaceti fishery on the western shore of America:

'The western coast of Mexico, especially that part of the great ocean, situated between the Gulph of Bayonna, the three Mary Islands, and Cape St. Lucas, abound in *spermaceti whales*, or *cachalots*, of which the fishery is one of the most important objects of mercantile specu-

speculation, on account of the extremely high prices given for spermaceti (*adipocire*) by the English and the inhabitants of the United States.—Were it not for the cachalot fishery, and the trade in furs of sea otters at Noutka, the great ocean would *almost never* be frequented by the Anglo-Americans and Europeans.—Of all the oily liquids which enter into trade, there are few so dear as spermaceti, or the particular substance contained in the enormous caverns of the snout of the cachalot. A single individual of these cetaceous giants yields as much as 125 English *barrels* (of 32½ gallons each) of *spermaceti*. A tun containing eight of these barrels, or 1024 pints of Paris, used to sell in London before the peace of Amiens at 70l. or 80l., and during the war at 95l. and 100l. sterling.—Till 1788 the whale fishers only frequented the coasts of Chili and Peru. Only twelve or fifteen vessels then doubled Cape Horn annually for the cachalot fishery, while at the period when I was in the South Sea, there were more than sixty under the English flag alone.'—

'The great ocean unites all the circumstances that render the cachalot fishery both easy and lucrative. It is richer in molluscus, fish, porpoises, tortoises, and sea calves of every species, and offers more nourishment to cetaceous animals than the Atlantic ocean. Hence these last are there in greater numbers as well as fatter and larger. The calm which prevails during so great a part of the year in the equinoctial region of the South Sea facilitates very much the pursuit of cachalots and whales.—It is a general rule that the cachalot avoids shallows, whereas they are sought after by the whale.'—

'The greatest number of English and Anglo-American vessels which enter the great ocean have the double object in view of carrying on the cachalot fishery and an illicit commerce with the Spanish colonies.—The whale fishers can easily distinguish at a distance the cachalots from the whales, by the manner in which the former spout up the brine through their spiracles. The cachalots can remain longer under water, than the true whale. When they come to the surface, their respiration is more frequently interrupted. The female of the cachalot is four or five times smaller than the male; and its head does not yield more than 25 English barrels of *adipocire*. A great number of females go generally together led by two or three males, which are perpetually describing circles round their flock.—This fishery, to be profitable, must be conducted on the most economical principles. Vessels from 180 to 300 tons are employed in it, and the crew consists only of 16 or 24 individuals. The expences of equipment of a vessel of 180 tons, lined with copper, and provisioned for a voyage of two years, is estimated in London at 7000l. sterling. The fitter out gives the sailors only their food and a very small sum of money under the name of advance. Their pay depends on the produce of the fishery; for as the whole crew contribute to it, every individual has a right to the profit.—It is not the want of hands which prevents the inhabitants of Mexico from applying to the cachalot fishery. In the present state of the Spanish colonies, the sloth of the inhabitants is inimical to the execution of similar projects; and it would be impossible to procure sailors willing to embrace so rude a business, and so miserable a life, as that of cachalot fisher. How could

could they be found in a country, where, according to the ideas of the common people, all that is necessary to happiness is bananas, salted flesh, a hammock, and a guitar? The hope of gain is too weak a stimulus under a zone where beneficent nature provides to man a thousand means of procuring an easy and peaceful existence without quitting his country, and without struggling with the monsters of the ocean.'

We come now to the subject of Roads and Navigable Rivers, a topic on which, as in the other parts of the book, we find a great portion of matter put very irregularly together. As far as we can extract a clear conclusion from this desultory mass, we are led to consider the roads throughout the interior as being in a wretched state; practicable for light carriages, but so unfit for waggons that the transport of goods takes place on the back of mules and horses, hundreds of which are seen covering the road in long files. The conductors of these convoys are Mestizoes and Indians, who prefer a wandering life to any kind of sedentary occupation, and pass the nights either in the open air or in the sheds constructed for travellers in the villages. The roads leading from the coast are in general more narrow and in worse condition than those of the interior. The roads from Mexico to Acapulco and Vera Cruz, though much frequented, are no better than the rest, but partial improvements are now executing. The extent of carriage-business through the interior is considerable, in consequence as well of the mines as of the nature of the maize crop, than which none is more subject to local inequalities. The introduction of camels would be highly useful in Mexico, since they would support, better than horses and mules, the aridity of the soil, and the occasional want of water and pasturage; and the author is of opinion that the cold of the table-lands is not so great as to be prejudicial to these animals. A few of them, it appears, were actually introduced into Peru about two centuries ago; and it deserves to be recorded, as a memorable example of unprincipled selfishness, that their increase was discouraged by the Spanish settlers, because it would have prevented them from *hiring out the natives as carriers.*

Of the various places proposed for a navigable passage to the Pacific Ocean, the isthmus of Tehuantepec, near Vera Cruz, appears chiefly to engage M. de Humboldt's attention. The river Huasacualco traverses a considerable part of this range: but provincial jealousies oppose a great obstacle to the execution of such plans:

'In all parts of Spanish America, there is a decided antipathy between the inhabitants of the plains or warm regions, and the inhabitants of the table-land of the Cordilleras. The inhabitants of the coast accuse the mountaineers of coldness and want of vivacity; and the inhabitants

inhabitants of the table-land reproach those of the coast with levity and inconstancy in their undertakings. One would almost say that nations of a different origin have settled in the same province; for a small extent of ground unites, besides the climate and productions, all the national prejudices of the north and south of Europe. These prejudices nourish the rivalry which we observe between the merchants of Mexico and Vera Cruz. Near to the seat of government, the former know how to avail themselves of their central position. A viceroy who arrives in New Spain, finds himself placed among the different parties of the lawyers, clergy, proprietors of mines, and the merchants of Vera Cruz and Mexico. Each party aims at rendering its adversaries suspected, by accusing them of a restless and innovating disposition, and a secret desire of independence and political liberty. Unhappily, the mother-country has hitherto believed its security consisted in the internal dissensions of the colonies; and far from quieting individual animosities, it saw with satisfaction the origin of that rivalship between the natives and the Spaniards, between the whites who inhabit the coast and those who are fixed on the table-land of the interior.'

In the course of his extensive travels, the author visited Acapulco; and while he admired the beauty and capaciousness of its harbour, he lamented the insalubrity of its air, and the danger to the town from the frequent recurrence of hurricanes and earthquakes. He enlarges on the facility of navigating, by the aid of the trade-winds, the vast expanse of the Pacific. The passage from east to west is indirect, and rather tedious, (lasting three or four months,) but not unsafe; while that from west to east, we mean from Acapaculco to the Philippines, lasts only half the time. Occasionally, the galleon on her eastward passage touches at the Sandwich islands; an archipelago which will one day be remarkable in the annals of naval establishments. In connection with this subject, we would observe that the approaching emancipation of the Spanish colonies, and of our India commerce, opens a prospect of extensive commerce between India and South America, the communication between which is rendered remarkably easy by the trade-winds. Vessels frequently sail from the Cape of Good Hope round Cape Horn, all the way to Chili, a distance of two-thirds of the globe, in the course of three months. On the hazards of the smuggling-trade, carried on by the Americans and English with Spanish America, it seems unnecessary to enlarge at an epoch when that trade appears about to assume an authorised character. M. de Humboldt calculates the total importation of goods into New Spain, lawful as well as contraband, at four or five millions sterling; of which the fourth is paid in produce, and three-fourths in specie. In classing the ports of Spanish America according to the importance of their trade, Vera Cruz and the Havannah occupy

occupy the first rank; next follow Lima, Carthagena, Buenos Ayres, La Guayra, Guayaquil, Porto Rico, Cumana, Santa Marta, Panama, and Porto Bello. The clear balance annually remitted from Spanish America to the mother-country, for revenue to the Treasury, and for the income of private individuals, amounted, according to the author's calculation, to less than two millions and a half, sterling. The amount of contraband trade he considers as having been greatly exaggerated.

Climate. — At a moment when our commercial intercourse with Spanish America seems likely to increase, it is important to have a correct idea of the danger of the climate. That dreadful epidemic, the yellow fever, (*vomito prieto*, or *negro*,) rages in autumn along the eastern coast of New Spain, and particularly at Vera Cruz, with great violence. Thousands of Europeans, landing during the heat, fall victims to it; and some merchants chuse to expose their vessels to the tempests of winter, rather than hazard the loss of their crews by mortality. The prevalence of the malady prevents, likewise, the intercourse with the inhabitants of the higher and healthier land of the interior. The yellow fever is a kind of *typhus*, and appears to have long had existence in the equatorial latitudes of America, although its ravages have become remarkable only within these twenty years. While Spaniards and Portuguese were the chief settlers in these warm latitudes, or while the northern Europeans took up their residence chiefly in country-parts, the evils of the climate were less apparent: but when towns were built, and numbers were crowded together in confined air, the case became very different. In America, as in the south of Europe, distant ports are often accused of being the origin of diseases which, on accurate examination, will be found to have arisen in a crowded and ill-ventilated ship. At Acapaculco, the yellow fever is yet unknown; and fortunate this is, because, the heats being less interrupted there than at Vera Cruz, the contagion, if once introduced, might prevail through the whole year: as it has been known to do in the port of La Guayra, the islands of Trinidad and St. Lucia, and wherever the mean temperature of the seasons varies so little as three or four degrees. Panama has been visited by the yellow fever, and the chief victims to it have been strangers who arrived from the pure air of Chili. On the eastern coast, Porto Bello and Carthagena are both very unhealthy. Vera Cruz has the double disadvantage of being surrounded by arid ground and of being too closely built; and it has been seriously under consideration to raze the town, and remove the inhabitants to the more salubrious air of Xalapa. — Undoubtedly, says M. de Humboldt, the yellow fever is scarcely ever infectious in the torrid zone. In more temperate latitudes, this is by no means so clear; the French physicians, who were

deputed to report on the yellow fever in Spain in 1804, having declared that, though no contagion took place in the villages to which the patients were removed, it appeared to be otherwise in the towns in which the disease raged. The latter idea was farther confirmed by the health which was enjoyed by those who took the precaution to shut up their houses from external communication. — It is a curious circumstance that the elevation of 3000 feet on the Mexican coast is at once the limit of the yellow fever upwards, and of the growth of the oak downwards; the latter being unfit to vegetate in a heat sufficient to engender the former. The inhabitants of Vera Cruz, like those of the Havannah, are free from the attack of yellow fever in their native town, but by no means exempt from it when in a strange place. The Mexicans of the interior, accustomed to the pure air of the table-land, are among the most frequent victims to the atmosphere of Vera Cruz; and it is to be regretted that, in this case, as well as in that of the sailors arriving at the port, the individuals cut off are generally in the prime of life. It is remarkable that the number of women who fall victims to it is much smaller than that of the men; and it is equally singular that rapidity in passing through Vera Cruz does not, in the bad season, screen the traveller from this formidable malady, which will attack him even after he has reached an elevated and healthy spot.

'A person,' says M. de Humboldt, 'with whom I was on terms of intimate friendship during my stay at Mexico, had passed only a very short time at Vera Cruz, on my first voyage from Europe to America. He arrived at Xalapa without feeling any sensation indicative of the dangerous state in which he was immediately to be. "You will have the *vomito* this evening," said an Indian barber gravely to him, while he lathered his face, "the soap dries as fast as I put it on, that is a never-failing sign, and for twenty years that I have been in the practice of shaving the *chapetons* who pass through this town in their way to Mexico, out of every five three have died." This sentence of death made a strong impression on the spirits of the traveller. It was in vain to represent to the Indian that his calculation was exaggerated, and that a great heat of the skin does not prove this infection; the barber persisted in his prognostic; and in reality the disease declared itself a few hours afterwards; and the traveller, already on his way for Perote, was obliged to be transported to Xalapa, where he very nearly fell a victim to the violence of the *vomito*.'

Revenue and Population.—The amount of revenue derived by Spain from her Trans-Atlantic colonies has been greatly exaggerated. Many of the provinces yield nothing, the local receipts being absorbed in the local disbursements; and the clear contributions of Mexico and Peru to the royal treasury at Madrid do not, as we shall see presently, exceed a million and a half sterling. The whole revenue of New Spain is somewhat more than four millions sterling; and, calculating by piastres or dollars,

dollars, we find it in the year 1803 arising from the following sources:

	Dollars.
Mines — the royal tenth and other taxes -	3,500,000
Profit on the sale of quicksilver - -	500,000
——— coinage - -	1,500,000
Monopoly of tobacco - - -	4,000,000
Alcavala, (consumption-duty) - -	3,000,000
Capitation-tax on the Indians - -	1,300,000
Duty on the pulque, (liquor, described in our Rev. for January last, p. 42.) - -	800,000
——— imports and exports - -	500,000
Cruzada, or sale of papal indulgencies, -	270,000
Post office - - - -	250,000
Clerical benefices - - -	100,000
Stamps, gun-powder, cards, and licences for cock-fighting - - - -	400,000
Tax on the sale of *snow* - - -	30,000
Total -	16,150,000

Since 1803, an increase has taken place in the amount of revenue. The following table is descriptive of Spanish America generally, and contains the population, as well as the pecuniary details:

SPANISH AMERICA, 1800.

Great Political Divisions.	Population.	No of Inhabitants per sq league.	Ann. Produce of Gold and Silver Mines, in Piastres.	Value of Goods of the old Continent imported into America, in Piastres.
Viceroyalty of New Spain, - - -	5,900,000	49	23,000,000	20,000,000
Guatimala (with Nicaragua and Vera Paz), - - -	1,200,000	46	Nothing.	2,000,000
The Islands of Cuba and Porto Rico, -	600,000	87	Nothing.	11,000,000
The two Floridas, -			Nothing.	
Capitania general of Caracas, - - -	900,000	2	Nothing.	5,500,000
Viceroyalty of New Grenada (with the Pres. of Quito), -	1,800,000	2	3,000,000	5,700,000
Viceroyalty of Peru, Presidency of Chili,	1,700,000	33	8,000,000	11,500,000
Viceroyalty of Buenos Ayres, - -	1,100,000	8	5,000,000	3,500,000
Spanish America, -	13,200,000	28	39,000,000	59,200,000

Their respective contribution to the Treasury of the mother-country is a matter of very brief explanation:

	Dollars.
New Spain sends home of clear revenue -	6,000,000
Peru - - - - -	1,000,000
Buenos Ayres - - - -	700,000
New Grenada - - - -	500,000
Total -	8,200,000

M. de Humboldt is fond of statistical tables, and presents us, among others, with this report of the population and finances of the whole Spanish monarchy in 1804:

	Population.		Revenue.
Old Spain	10,500,000	Sterling	£8,000,000
America	13,500,000	- -	2,000,000
Philippine islands	1,900,000	- -	350,000
Canary islands	180,000		

The population of the continent of America is, no doubt, with the exception of the United States, a subject of considerable uncertainty: but the following may convey a tolerably accurate idea of it:

Spanish America (increased since M. de Humboldt's report) - - -	16,000,000
Portuguese America - - -	4,500,000
West Indies - - - -	2,000,000
United States - - - -	9,000,000
Canada - - - - -	500,000

The salaries of the Spanish viceroys and governors are by no means equal to the magnificent conceptions generally entertained of the wealth of America. Those of Mexico and Peru are 12,000l. sterling each; those of New Grenada and Buenos Ayres, 8,000l.; sums considerably inferior to the incomes of many of the individuals who are subject to their jurisdiction. The governor, therefore, who means to amass a fortune, must do it at the expence of principle, by turning to account his patronage in the way of public offices, commercial privileges, and the distribution of quicksilver. Among the various individuals who have filled the station of governors, striking examples of each kind have occurred; of men with whom the acquisition of fortune was the last consideration, as well as of others who, in the course of a few years, contrived, by the dereliction of honour, to amass a sum of several hundred thousand pounds.

The Mexican government had scarcely any military establishment until the independence of the United States. At present, it may be put down at 8 or 9,000 regulars, and 20,000 militia. Few countries are in less danger from a foreign enemy if the inhabitants

inhabitants are faithful to each other; since the bad harbours and remarkable insalubrity of the eastern coast, together with the difficulty of marching through the interior, constitute very formidable obstacles to an invading force. It is unfortunate that, in the interior provinces, a petty warfare against the Indians should still continue; and it would require no great effort, we imagine, to convert these ignorant creatures into pacific neighbours. Had the convents been distributed throughout the country of New Spain, instead of being crowded in towns, it is likely that, among other advantages from such a plan, the Spanish settlers would have been impressed towards the Indians with a spirit more consonant to the tenets of Christianity.

It is now time to advert to the style and composition of these volumes.—We have heard, though we confess that the instances are rare, of translations being executed in such a manner as to be accounted superior to the originals. Now, if ever a translator of this precious character was wanted, it was in the case of M. de Humboldt. With strong claims to attention on the score of richness and novelty of information, the writings of this traveller require, more than those of the generality of authors, the correcting hand of a friendly examiner. Whether we look to his statements in money, in weights and measures, or in short to any of his details, we find the description clogged by that repetition and prolixity which characterize a man pouring forth his ideas in no other succession than that in which they occur to him at the moment of writing. A complete correction of this desultory mode of composition was not within a translator's power: but, with a sacrifice of time and attention, much might have been done towards it. At present, the various calculations with which the book abounds are given in the text in foreign monies and measures, partly Spanish and partly French, thus requiring an almost perpetual reference to the notes, in which the translator has reduced them to English standards. As nothing distracts the attention more than this incessant recurrence of foreign denominations, the proper plan would have been to have kept them wholly out of sight in the translation, and to have inserted the reduction to English standards in the text at once. If this was too much to expect from a translator, we were intitled to look for typographical accuracy at least, without being embarrassed with such mistakes as (Vol. iv. p. 117.) '188 chests' for '188,000 chests.' We are aware that a work abounding with technical terms is always difficult to render into a foreign language: but we cannot help thinking that the number of untranslated words, French, Spanish, and German, which occupy at present such a succession of

parentheses, might have been very much reduced. These different languages are so often intermixed, that, without the express declaration in the title, we should be at a loss to tell in which of them the original was composed. On the whole, the translator, though capable of subjoining very good observations, appears to have been in almost as great a hurry to finish his task as the author. These remarks will not, we trust, be overlooked by any person who may undertake to render into English M. de Humboldt's next work; for we are promised a farther publication by this traveller, which we may expect to possess great attraction, since it is to contain the historical account of his travels. It will afford proofs, we have no doubt, of extensive reading and attentive observation, equally with the present book; though combined together, we would hope, with more method and condensation. At all events, we flatter ourselves that we shall have no other productions of this kind to review without the aid of a table of contents, though a copious Index is subjoined; and that we shall not again have the mortification of finding the division of volumes take place in the middle of chapters.

ART. IV. *Mr.* Hardy's *Memoirs of the Earl of Charlemont.*

[*Art. concluded from p.* 337—355.]

WE have brought down, in our former article, the account of Lord Charlemont's life to the year 1774. The time now approached at which the political condition of Ireland was about to undergo a change, and to receive from the wants of England that amelioration which had in vain been sought from her generosity. A vacancy occurred in 1775 in the borough of Charlemont, by the untimely death of his Lordship's brother; and, as soon as he was sufficiently recovered from his affliction to attend to public business, the Earl looked round for a man who was able to serve his country, and fixed with singular felicity on Mr. Grattan. Some years afterward, Mr. Flood, disgusted with his office, which, while it bereft him of popularity, conferred little authority in the management of public affairs, forsook the Castle, and resumed his station in the ranks of Opposition: — but, which was of more consequence than the eloquence of individuals, the call for the presence of our military in America drained Ireland of its troops, and taught the inhabitants the necessity of taking arms for their defence against the threatened invasion of France. The town of Belfast having applied in vain for a garrison, the citizens determined to enroll themselves. Antrim and the adjacent counties soon poured forth their armed inhabitants; and the town of Armagh having raised a body of

Volunteers

Volunteers, Lord Charlemont placed himself at their head. The institution now became general, and was embraced by the Irish with their characteristic ardour. No landlord could receive his tenants, no member of Parliament could encounter his constituents, and, in private circles, scarcely could a gentleman meet the ladies, if he was not willing to join the associations of his countrymen. Even persons attached to the ministry found it necessary to fall into the ranks, and the collective numbers soon exceeded 40,000 men. The government of Ireland, guided at that time by the feeble hand of Lord Buckinghamshire, with the still feebler aid of his secretary, Sir Richard Heron, was astonished. To disunite the Volunteers was impracticable; no force was on foot that could be substituted for them; nor, if there had, would substitution have been practicable, after the spirit that had gone abroad. The commercial distress of Ireland, owing, in some degree, to impolitic embargoes on the export of provisions, but more to the prevention of the sale of manufactures by the American war, had at this time risen to a great height. It was in vain that complaints were addressed to England; since, though Lord North brought forwards propositions of relief, they were rejected by the clamour of the English manufacturers. The Irish, therefore, taught that their best dependence was on themselves, resorted to that policy which Swift had recommended half a century before. They determined to use their own manufactures; and they entered into agreements to import none whatever from England.

At this time commenced the most active part of Lord Charlemont's life. His rank, his tried attachment to his country, and the length of his political career, all justified him in taking a leading part with regard to the Volunteers. "To that institution," he said, "my country owes its liberty, prosperity, and safety; and if, after her obligations, I can mention my own, I owe the principal and dearest honours of my life." Fortunate was it for Ireland that a leader existed who was matured, like his Lordship, in years and political experience. He and the patriotic men who acted with him took care to confine the public ardour to two great principles; the defence of the empire, and the restoration of the constitution. In their steps to the attainment of the latter, they were cautious to limit the national claim to such a point that Ireland could not herself divide on it,—the grant of a free trade. The Irish parliament having met in October 1779, the leading members, Grattan, Flood, and Burgh, moved the short and emphatic resolution, "That nothing but a free trade could save the country from ruin." Government offering no opposition, the motion was carried unanimously; and when the House of Commons attended the Lord

Lieutenant with it, the Dublin Volunteers lined the streets through which the members passed. Lord North, aware that it would be fruitless to resist the current, moved in the British parliament the admission of Ireland to the woollen and colonial trade, in a speech equally distinguished for its historical information, and for its conciliating spirit. The bill was carried; and, on receiving the news of this important concession, Dublin was illuminated, and universal satisfaction was diffused.

The British ministry now recalled Lord Buckinghamshire, and replaced him and his secretary by two very different men, Lord Carlisle and Mr. Eden, the present Lord Auckland. Various measures, particularly that of a national bank, were proposed, for the purpose of soothing the discontents of the Irish, and tempering the ardour of their popular leaders. These acts of favour had the effect of giving government great majorities in parliament: but the Volunteers continued to muster in full force; and the part of them reviewed at Belfast by Lord Charlemont, in 1781 and 1782, amounted to the number of five thousand. They saw with impatience the continued subserviency of the majority of their representatives, and determined to pronounce, with one voice, the right of Ireland to legislate for herself. With this view, the delegates of not fewer than one hundred and forty-three corps of the Ulster Volunteers held at Dungannon the meeting which we lately noticed in our review of Mr. Newenham's book, and entered into various resolutions declaratory of the rights and grievances of Ireland, as well as of their satisfaction at the relaxation of the penal laws against the Catholics. Their concluding address, so remarkable for its brevity and spirit, was as follows:

"*To the Right Honourable, and Honourable, the Minority in both Houses of Parliament.*

"My Lords and Gentlemen,

"We thank you for your noble and spirited, though hitherto ineffectual efforts, in defence of the great constitutional rights of your country. Go on! The almost unanimous voice of the people is with you; and in a free country, the voice of the people must prevail. We know our duty to our Sovereign, and are loyal. We know our duty to ourselves, and are resolved to be free. We seek for our rights, and no more than our rights; and, in so just a pursuit, we should doubt the being of a Providence, if we doubted of success."

Meantime, the ministry of Lord North at last gave way, and was succeeded by men whose wishes were in unision with those of Lord Charlemont and other temperate reformers of the Irish constitution. The head of the new ministry, the Marquis of Rockingham, was his Lordship's intimate friend; and

and the new Lord Lieutenant, the Duke of Portland, was also much esteemed by him. Colonel (now General) Fitzpatrick was the new secretary. With such men, it could not be doubted that the resolutions of the Volunteers of Ulster would receive a legislative sanction. — The Marquis of Rockingham, and Mr. Fox, soon after their appointments, wrote letters to Lord Charlemont, in which are these passages:

"My Dear Lord Charlemont,

"The long and pleasing friendship which has so mutually and so cordially existed between your Lordship and me, for many, many years, may now, I trust, facilitate what I am sure has been the object of our public conduct — the mutual advantage and prosperity of both these countries. National distrusts and jealousies will not have the smallest weight on either of our minds. — I can assure your Lordship, that his Majesty's present ministers will not loiter in a business of such magnitude. — This day his Majesty sends a message to the House of Commons, stating that distrust and jealousies have arisen in Ireland, and that it is highly necessary to take them into immediate consideration, in order to a final adjustment. The Duke of Portland will set out for Ireland to-morrow evening. His Grace is empowered to send the same message to the Parliament in Ireland."

Lord Charlemont to the Marquis of Rockingham.

"I cannot, at this conjuncture, begin a letter to you, without expressing my joy and exulation at the late happy change of administration, a change in which I rejoice as a patriot, and as a friend.— Yes, my dearest Lord, I look up to you with the most unbounded confidence, a confidence founded upon a thorough knowledge of your principles, and your wisdom. We ask but our rights — our uncontrovertible rights — restore them to us, and for ever unite in the closest and best rivetted bonds of affection the kingdom of Ireland to her beloved, though hitherto unkind sister! — Bind us to you by the only chains that can connect us, the only chains we will ever consent to wear, — the dear ties of mutual love, and mutual freedom."

Mr. Fox to Lord Charlemont.

"My Dear Lord,

"If I had had occasion to write to you a month ago, I should have written with great confidence that you would believe me perfectly sincere, and would receive any thing that came from me with the partiality of an old acquaintance, and one who acted upon the same political principles.—I have been so used to think ill of all the ministers whom I did know, and to suspect those whom I did not, that when I am obliged to call myself a minister, I feel as if I put myself into a very suspicious character; but I do assure you I am the very same man, in all respects, that I was when you knew me, and honoured me with some share in your esteem; that I maintain the same opinions, and act with the same people.

"Pray

" Pray make my best compliments to Mr. Grattan, and tell him, that the Duke of Portland and Fitzpatrick are thoroughly impressed with the consequence of his approbation, and will do all they can to deserve it. I do most sincerely hope, that he may hit upon some line that may be drawn honourably and advantageously for both countries, and that, when that is done, he will shew the world that there may be a government in Ireland, of which he is not ashamed to make a part. That country can never prosper, where what should be the ambition of men of honour is considered as a disgrace."

The declaration of the right of Ireland to legislate for herself, in conjunction with his Majesty, having passed unanimously at Dublin, it remained for the statesmen of Westminster to perform their part:

'The British ministers,' says Mr. Hardy, 'acted with candour and magnanimity. The remedy to our political grievances was given precisely in that mode which we had ourselves prescribed. Mr. Fox moved the repeal of the obnoxious statute of George the First, in the House of Commons. " Never did a British Minister," said Mr. Grattan, " support such honourable claims with such constitutional arguments." Lord Shelburne moved a similar resolution, and with great ability, in the House of Lords. The repeal was immediately adopted.—The joy of the Irish was unbounded. Twenty thousand seamen were voted for his Majesty's navy; and the Volunteers cheerfully engaged to contribute their aid towards raising them. Fifty thousand pounds were unanimously voted to Mr. Grattan, and a day of general thanksgiving was appointed, to return thanks to Almighty God for that union, harmony, and cordial affection, which had been happily brought about between the two kingdoms.'

" Nothing," said the Marquis of Rockingham, in a letter to Lord Charlemont, " was ever better timed than the kind offer made by Ireland of furnishing 20,000 men for the service of the fleet. Lord Keppel has sent one of the best and most alert men in the navy to superintend and to receive the men, which the zeal of Ireland will furnish. Captain Mac Bride has no occasion for my panegyric, but in writing to a friend like your Lordship, it is natural for me to say something in behalf of one I have a great regard for, and who probably, in this business, may have frequent intercourse with your Lordship.—Lord Keppel assures me, that if he had a supply of seamen he could add, in three weeks, not less than 14 ships of the line to the fleet which Lord Howe will command. It will indeed, at present, be but a very scanty fleet with which Lord Howe will proceed to sea. I verily believe, if France and Spain are alert, their fleet may be more than double the number of ours. But could we be enabled to send the ten, or fourteen, additional ships, along with or soon to join Lord Howe, I should have the utmost reliance that the ability and conduct of Lord Howe would afford us the most pleasing prospect of success, even though the enemy's fleet might still be superiour to our's in actual number of line of battle ships. Nothing but the friendly efforts of Ireland can rapidly furnish men for these ships."

The

The fair prospect of cordiality thus opened was, however, soon clouded. The death of the Marquis of Rockingham unhappily took place shortly after his last-mentioned letter, and, by producing Mr. Fox's resignation, deprived Ireland of her best friends in the cabinet. At the same time, or rather before it, a mere difference of opinion on a point of small consequence shewed Mr. Grattan how little dependence he could place on the steadiness of his countrymen; and he, who had been the favourite of the nation, became, in the short space of two months, one of the most unpopular men in the island. This remarkable instance of fickleness makes Mr. Hardy, himself a public man, exclaim with great gravity that 'politics never did yet, and perhaps never will, afford any permanent, unmixed satisfaction to any rational being.' He cites with eagerness the following extracts from letters of Lord Charlemont in vindication of Mr. Grattan:

"Dublin, August 11, 1782.

"—— Respecting the grant, I know with certainty that Grattan, though he felt himself flattered by the *intention*, looked upon the act with the deepest concern, and did all in his power to deprecate it. As it was found impossible to defeat the design, all his friends, and I among others, were employed to lessen the sum. It was accordingly decreased by one half, and that principally by his positive declaration, through us, that, if the whole were insisted on, he would refuse all, but a few hundreds, which he would retain as an honourable mark of the goodness of his country."

"Marino, August 17, 1782.

"—— I have had a letter from our friend Harry, (Grattan,) dated Shrewsbury. He was then getting better, and writes in tolerable spirits. I am heartily glad that he is safe out of this pestilential atmosphere, and am certain, that the change of air, and of scene, will do him more good even than the waters of Spa. To a delicate mind popular ingratitude must be grating indeed."

The Duke of Portland, retiring from the Viceroyalty soon after the change of ministry, was succeeded by Earl Temple, (now Marquis of Buckingham,) who brought over his brother, the present Lord Grenville, as his secretary. They engaged ardently in a plan for the retrenchment of fraudulent and superfluous expenditure; and, though they were both young men, they exhibited an example of assiduity which excited surprize in a country so little accustomed as Ireland to plodding governors. In the course of their investigations, a gentleman of large property, having been found a defaulter, was dismissed from office, and an order was issued to sue him on behalf of the public. Lord Shannon's patronage, though supported by more than half-a-dozen members of the House of Commons, was,

was, for the first time, found inadequate. 'Never till then had the seven-fold fence of a parliamentary buckler been known to fail, and dismal was the augury.' The Viceroy, on stating to Lord Charlemont the egregious defalcations which had been brought to light in many offices, said, "Be assured, my Lord, there's not a Board throughout Ireland which does not tremble at this instant." It was matter of regret that the Viceroy should have been recalled in the midst of his reforming career;—and still more that he should have cut short his early popularity by the acceptance of the enormous sinecure which he still enjoys.

Among the measures adopted by the British ministry to regain popularity in Ireland, were the incorporation of the Irish Academy and the creation of an order of knighthood, by the appellation of the Knights of St. Patrick. In the latter, Lord Charlemont received one of the first nominations, and of the former he was elected President. These accumulated honours, however, afforded but a slender counterpoise to the vexation which it was now his lot to experience from the impatient zeal of the Volunteers in the question of parliamentary reform. This measure was about to be brought forwards in the British parliament under the flattering auspices of Mr. Pitt; a circumstance which, joined to others, made the Volunteers overlook the grand maxim that "reform should never be urged by an armed body." It being found impracticable to stem the current of popular enthusiasm, a convention of delegates, chiefly from Ulster, met at Dublin on 10th November 1783; and Lord Charlemont, with the view of securing moderate measures, consented to be their President. Their plans and deliberations partook of all those visions and fluctuations which may be expected in a mixed assemblage; till Mr. Flood, having joined them, carried every thing before him by dint of oratory. He obtained the recommendation of his own project of reform, and moved, on 29th November, the extraordinary resolution, that "it should be proposed that very day in parliament, and that the convention should not adjourn till its fate was ascertained." The discussion in parliament lasted during the whole night, and created a scene of clamour, menace, and recrimination: but a determination to maintain the independence of the House caused the rejection of Mr. Flood's motion by a great majority. This defeat opened the eyes of the delegates to their own precipitancy, and to the sober counsels of Lord Charlemont; the result of which was a dissolution of the convention, after the adoption of some resolutions in favour of reform.

Lord Charlemont continued at the head of the Volunteers long after the conclusion of peace, with the view chiefly of preventing

ing the command from passing into less patriotic hands: but their numbers gradually fell off; and nothing of importance, in connection with the history of Lord Charlemont, occurred till the Regency-discussions in the beginning of 1789. In these he placed himself at the head of Opposition; and government had in Ireland none of those majorities which attended them on our side of the Channel. Almost as soon as the members were assembled, a motion was made and carried, to "address the Prince to take on himself the government on behalf of the King, free from restrictions." The Lord Lieutenant refusing to transmit it, a vote of censure was passed on him by both Houses; and deputations were appointed to convey the wishes of parliament to the Prince. The Duke of Leinster and Lord Charlemont were the deputies on the part of the Lords; and, though the King was now in a state of convalescence, they discharged their commission, and had the honour of interviews with the Prince. The contrast between the circumstances of that time and those of the present day give *a remarkable interest* to these communications.

'It is no adulation,' says Mr. Hardy, 'but strict historical justice to state, that the urbanity and good sense of his Royal Highness were never more conspicuous than on this occasion. To all the deputies he paid attentions the most delicate and flattering; he particularly distinguished our good and venerable Earl, who, whenever an opportunity permitted, never failed to speak of His Royal Highness with the utmost fervour of affection and gratitude, of the perfect propriety of his behaviour at this arduous moment, his knowledge of mankind, and that fascinating politeness and good breeding which, accustomed as Lord Charlemont had been to the refined society of some of the most accomplished men in Europe, he often declared that he had seldom seen equalled, and never surpassed. To this it must be added, that His Royal Highness's expressions of regard for the Irish Parliament, and people, were the most conciliating, the best calculated to leave on their minds an impression the most pleasing, and to close this important and interesting scene with temper, with dignity, and unaffected benevolence.'

The same subject is mentioned in a letter from Mr. Burke to Lord Charlemont:

"4th April, 1789.

"After I had received your Lordship's letter of the 24th of March, I lost no time in attending the P. I cannot say that I executed your Lordship's commission literally: I thought it better to let you speak for yourself. To have done otherwise, would not have been to do justice to the P., to your Lordship, or even to the person charged with your commission. There never was any thing conceived more justly, or expressed with more elegance, than what you have said of His R.H. I did not think it right to spoil so just and so handsome a compliment, by giving it in any other words than your own. I risked more,

more, and without your authority, put the letter into his hands. The P. was much pleased, and, I think, affected. The account your Lordship has given of the state of politics in Ireland was certainly not what we could have wished, and indeed expected. It was, however, a relief to His R. H., as he found things much better than, from other accounts, he had conceived them." —

"Ponsonby* then is, it seems, the Proto-Martyr. I never saw him until the time of your embassy; but I am not mistaken in the opinion I formed of him, on our first conversation, as a manly, decided character, with a right conformation of mind, and a clear and vigorous understanding. The world will see what is got by leaving a provoked, a powerful enemy."—

"I have a thousand handsome things to say to your Lordship, on the part of the P. with regard to your principles, your liberality of sentiment, the goodness of your heart, and the politeness of your manners. I think him a judge of these things, and I see that he knows the value of a compliment from one who has his civility for every body, but the expression of his approbation for very few."

The subsequent passages from Mr. Burke's letters treat of the general politics of the time, and possess considerable interest:

"London, 10th July, 1789.

"We draw to the end of our business in this strange session. I have taken no part whatever in the latter period, though in the former I exerted myself with all the activity in my power, and which I thought the crisis called for. Nature has made a decision, which no art, or skill of parties, could have produced. When that was done, I had nothing further to do. My time of life, the length of my service, and the temper of the public, rendered it very unfit for me to exert myself in the common routine of opposition. *Turpe Senex Miles.* There is a time of life in which, if a man cannot arrive at a certain degree of authority, derived from a confidence from the Prince, or the people, which may aid him in his operations, and make him compass useful objects without a perpetual struggle, it becomes him to remit much of his activity. Perpetual failure, even though nothing in that failure can be fixed on the improper choice of the object, or the injudicious choice of means, will detract every day more and more from a man's credit, until he ends without success, and without reputation. In fact, a constant pursuit even of the best objects, without adequate instruments, detracts something from the opinion of a man's judgment. This, I think, may be, in part, the cause of the inactivity of others of our friends, who are in the vigour of life, and in possession of a great degree of lead and authority. I do not blame them, though I lament that state of the public mind, in which the people can consider the exclusion of such talents, and such virtues, from their service, as a point gained to them."—

"As to the politics of Ireland, as I see nothing in them very pleasant, I do not wish to revive in your mind, what your best philosophy

* William, late Lord Ponsonby. He had been removed from his office of Post-Master General, after the business of the Regency.

is required to make tolerable. Enjoy your Marino, and your amiable and excellent family. These are comfortable sanctuaries, when more extensive views of society are gloomy, and unpleasant, or unsafe."

"Beaconsfield, 9th Aug. 1789.

"I think your Lordship has acted with your usual zeal and judgment, in establishing a Whig-Club in Dublin. These meetings prevent the evaporation of principle in individuals, and give them joint force, and enliven their exertions by emulation. As to us here, our thoughts of every thing at home, are suspended by our astonishment at the wonderful spectacle which is exhibited in a neighbouring and rival country. What spectators, and what actors! England gazing with astonishment at a French struggle for liberty, and not knowing whether to blame, or to applaud. The thing, indeed, though I thought I saw something like it in progress for several years, has still somewhat in it paradoxical and mysterious. The spirit, it is impossible not to admire; but the old Parisian ferocity has broken out in a shocking manner. It is true, that this may be no more than a sudden explosion; if so, no indication can be taken from it; but if it should be *character*, rather than accident, then that people are not fit for liberty, and must have a strong hand, like that of their former masters, to coerce them. —

"Our neighbour, the Duke of Portland, is still somewhat stiff in his limbs, though he can walk. He is the same virtuous, calm, steady character, in all sorts of weather, natural and political."

The Whig-Club mentioned by Mr. Burke consisted of the leading members of opposition in both Houses, with the addition of many gentlemen who were not in parliament. This association has been charged with being a *focus* of Opposition-movements; a character which Mr. Hardy pointedly disclaims, alleging that their subjects of conversation were general, and that all political discussions were confined to more select meetings. He repels, also, any charge against the club for the admission (casual, as he maintains,) of some members of doubtful integrity. Be this as it may, Lord Charlemont was now a confirmed leader of Opposition; and the scenes in parliament, after the Regency-discussion had called forth the strength of both sides, were very different from those tranquil days in which the Irish legislature assembled only once in two years.

'The debates of the session, 1790, were such as might be expected from the violent concussion of parties. An uncommon accession of strength was, by the junction of the Ponsonby-family, given to the Opposition. As a debater, Mr. George Ponsonby was little, if at all inferior, to any one, who had ever sat in the Commons of Ireland. Diction, pure, simple, and perspicuous, variety of argument, not expanded, but compressed and forcible; great promptitude, great vigour in attack, aided by a memory the most uncommonly retentive; such were the characteristics of his eloquence. Never was Mr. Grattan more pointed, more various, more eloquently indignant, than

than during this session. He had an admirable parliamentary lieutenant, if I may be allowed the phrase, in Mr. Curran, who animated every debate with all his powers. He was copious, splendid, full of wit, and life, and ardour. Altogether, it was, on the part of Opposition, the most completely brilliant session in my remembrance. The divisions at this time were peculiarly strong; generally more than ninety; and, as I well know, they might often have passed one hundred, if the ranks of Opposition could ever be as well marshalled as those of their opponents. That, however, cannot be expected. Lord Charlemont attended every debate, and spent so much more of his time in the Commons than the Lords, that it was justly said, he should have been admitted *ad eundem* in the former assembly. It is true, that he never omitted his attendance in the Upper House; but appeals constituted, at this time, the principal business of their Lordships; they felt none of the warmth of the Commons, and Lord Fitzgibbon (Earl Clare) began already to rule there with almost unlimited sway.'—

'In the session of 1791, the Opposition was not quite so strong in numbers as the preceding one; but their spirit suffered no diminution. The increase of salaries to various officers, in different departments; the still further extension of a most unconstitutional influence in Parliament; a motion to enquire whether any legislative provisions then existed, which might prevent Ireland from receiving the full benefit of her free trade, beyond the Cape of Good Hope, and the Streights of Magellan; the sale of the Irish Peerage. Such were the questions which principally engaged the attention of the House of Commons.

'Most certainly at that period, the honours of the Irish Peerage were scattered with the most unthinking and impolitic profusion; one good effect, however, this profusion had, which certainly never was intended; it retained some illustrious commoners of great property in the Lower House, who were perfectly ashamed of going in a vulgar crowd to the Upper One. A rich adventurer from the East or the West was advanced to the rank of an hereditary legislator, in a country where he had neither property nor connection of any sort, which he never saw, or wished to see; — or, an insignificant member of the British or Irish House of Commons, whose claims were as importunate as his services were pitiful, found himself equally obtruded on the old, or more recent, but meritorious nobility. The Minister, after having him long in his possession, and not knowing exactly what to do with him, thought it, perhaps, most convenient to make him an Irish Peer.'

In the beginning of 1791, government deemed it proper to mark their dissatisfaction at Lord Charlemont's opposition, by dividing into two separate governments the lieutenancy of the county of Armagh, which had for more than a century been enjoyed by his ancestors. Lord Gosford now shared the government with his Lordship, whose popularity among his countrymen at large was rather increased by this token of ministerial displeasure. It was at this time that the Catholics, seeing

seeing the progress of liberal opinions, began to entertain hopes that their own situation in the state might be ameliorated. A general committee of the body met in Dublin early in 1791; and, after various divisions and discussions, they agreed to fix on Mr. Burke as their advocate with the British government.

'In forming a connection,' says Mr. Hardy, 'with Mr. Burke, the Catholic gentlemen shewed themselves most adroit negotiators; for a more valuable one, with any private individual, could scarcely, at this time, have been formed. He was their countryman; had, at all times, been a most able and eloquent advocate for the claims of the Catholics; his talents were then at their highest point of perfection, and he had so recently displayed them, in his ever-memorable Reflections on the French Revolution, that, from being the object of the affected contempt of ministers, he was now their idol; indeed, almost their demi-god. To this justly-celebrated man, therefore, they wisely applied. With great ardor, as is particularly well known to those who were acquainted with him, did he engage in any subject which employed his comprehensive mind, and with peculiar and uncommon ardor into this most favoured subject, for such it was by him. His son was appointed agent to the Catholics. This gentleman came over to Ireland, and, where party did not interfere, was most cordially received. His father addressed that celebrated letter to Sir Hercules Langrishe, in which the claims of the Catholics are discussed with the talents of a master. Lord Charlemont read and admired it. Mr. Burke was his old and intimate friend: their mutual connection with Lord Rockingham had drawn them more closely together; and the sentiments of Burke, in his pamphlets relative to Whig-administrations and Whig-principles, were, with several exceptions however, the sentiments of Lord Charlemont. But, on the subject of the Catholic question, he at all times differed from him.

'The following letter, which young Mr. Burke delivered from his father to Lord Charlemont, in Dublin, cannot but be interesting, as it relates to that melancholy separation which had now taken place between two most eminent men:

"Beconsfield, December 29, 1791.

"Your Lordship is very good, in lamenting the difference which politics had made between Mr. Fox and me. Your condolence was truly kind; for my loss has been truly great, in the cessation of the partiality of a man of his wonderful abilities, and amiable dispositions. Your Lordship is a little angry at politics that can dissolve friendships. If it should please God to lend me a little longer life, they will not, I hope, cause me to lose the few friends I have left; for I have left all politics, I think, for ever. Every thing that remains of my relation to the public will be only in my wishes, which are warm and sincere, that this constitution should be thoroughly understood; for then I am sure it will be sincerely loved; that its benefits may be widely extended, and lastingly continued; and that no man may have an excuse to wish it to have another fortune, than I pray it may long flourish in. I am sure that your country, in whose prosperity I in-

clude the most valuable interests of this, will have reason to look back on what you have done for it, with gratitude, and will have reason to think the continuance of your health, for her further service, amongst the greatest advantages she is likely to expect."

The opposition of Lord Charlemont to the Catholic claims is so unlike the general tone of his measures as to require a much fuller explanation than his biographer has given of it. Our readers will bear in mind that his family had been originally settled in Ulster, as part of that colony which was intended to restrain Catholic insurrection; that one of his ancestors was murdered in 1641; that the remembrance of the civil horrors of King James's time was not extinguished in his youth; and that, in his advanced years, the commotion of the French Revolution suspended all ardour for liberty among men of hereditary rank. Unfortunately, his Lordship connected the claims of the Catholics with those republican principles which had gained ground rapidly in Ulster, and were to him a source of the greatest disquietude. "That the spirit of discontent," said he in a letter to his friend Dr. Haliday, "has struck its roots deep, I am, alas! well aware. But is it merely a spirit of discontent? It is, I fear, of a far worse nature, and proceeds from the machinations of a set of wretches who wish for confusion because by that alone they can hope to thrive."—The junction that took place in 1794 between Mr. Pitt and those Members of the Opposition who approved of the war, we mean the Duke of Portland, Lord Spencer, Lord Fitzwilliam, Mr. Windham, and others, opened a new prospect to the friends of Ireland. Lord Fitzwilliam being the nephew of the Marquis of Rockingham, and possessing a princely fortune in Ireland, was received with the greatest cordiality by Lord Charlemont and his friends. In a letter of 10th January 1795, to his friend Dr. Haliday, Lord C. remarks:

"Well, the wished-for change has at length taken place. I cannot avoid flattering myself, that we have now got a chief governor, who comes over with the best intentions, and the strongest desire of doing us all the good in his power. Already we have had a foretaste and earnest of his administration. Regardless of ministerial influence, or convenience, he has restored the University to its rights, and has placed at the head of the Church a Prelate, not from recommendation, but from character, and whose unassuming virtue, conduct, principles, and erudition, have alone recommended him to that high office. In both these appointments, public utility has alone been considered. Murray (Provost of Trinity College) could possibly have had no protection but his own intrinsic merit, and Newcome (Abp. of Armagh) had no English patron but Charles Fox. From such commencement, it would be uncharitable, and even foolish, not to indulge the most sanguine hopes, both with respect to him and his principal advisers. And here I cannot avoid repeating, what I have

have often inculcated, that much public gratitude is due, and ought, in propriety and policy, to be paid to the Ponsonbys, who have hitherto acted a manly, consistent, and disinterested part."—

" 31st January.

" The only hopeful administration I have yet seen, strongly invites me to join all my efforts in behalf of that which I verily believe to be their principal object, the public weal. I may be mistaken, my dearest Haliday, and my sanguine hopes may be deceived; but I really think we have a chief governor, whose warmest wish is to do us all the good he can, and whose powers, if not equal to all we would wish, will most certainly enable him to be of the greatest service to this ill-treated country."

'The Lord Lieutenant,' adds Mr. Hardy, 'met Parliament the 25th January. Mr. Grattan, (a novel circumstance,) moved the address in the House of Commons, which was carried without a division. The same harmony prevailed in the Lords. The Catholics of the city of Dublin presented a petition by the hands of Mr. Grattan, praying a repeal of all the penal and restrictive laws then affecting the Catholics of Ireland. Various petitions followed from every part of the kingdom. Mr. Grattan obtained leave to bring in a bill for their relief. There were but three negatives to the resolution. Every thing as yet announced a tranquil and happy session. But, as usual, the parliamentary horizon was soon clouded. For several days previous to the 26th of February, a rumour had prevailed that the British ministry was adverse to the proceedings of the Irish Cabinet; *that* rumour soon after added, that the Lord Lieutenant's recall was determined on, and before the 26th all uncertainty was at an end, and his intended removal was generally known. Thus, in two months, closed the administration of Earl Fitzwilliam. That administration, as long as Ireland cherishes integrity, or a love of concord, and national unanimity, must be remembered with gratitude and respect. It did much, and had it been so permitted, would have done much more.

'No event, almost, within the last century, convulsed Ireland more than this abrupt and unfortunate recall. Lord Charlemont often, and in terms the least measured, declared, that it was utterly ruinous. *His* opinion was not influenced by the sudden dereliction of the Catholic question. But he well knew, that to the discontents of the Catholics, and the mortification of the hopes of every constitutional man throughout the kingdom, would be added, the malign joy of each agitator and fomenter of discord; to whom such an event as this would, of all others, convey the most untoward satisfaction. He well knew that the cry would soon be raised, and louder than ever, against British influence, and he had less now to oppose to that cry than he had two months before.'

The sequel but too fully confirmed Lord Charlemont's predictions. Lord Camden, the new Lord Lieutenant, was received amid the hisses of the people, and Ireland became the scene of every kind of disturbance. The county of Armagh was agitated by religious warfare; and the insurgents, who had taken the name of " Defenders," raged with almost uncontrouled fury.

It was in vain that government carried every thing in parliament by sweeping majorities; the people remained dissatisfied, and open to the machinations of the United Irishmen. Early in 1797, the French fleet appeared off the coast, and was dispersed; an event which revived in Lord Charlemont the spirits which age and political vexation had greatly impaired.

"Dublin, February 1, 1797.

"The French attempt," he writes, "which is now, thank Heaven, at least for the present, entirely at an end, has, in my opinion, been productive of many salutary effects. It has shewn to the people, that there are dangers more to be dreaded than the effects of a bad administration. It has made the well-minded lay aside their vicious backwardness, and boldly speak out. It has confirmed the wavering, and in a great measure awed and silenced the clamour of faction; but, above all, it has clearly proved, that the numbers of the disaffected have been far over-rated."

The ensuing rebellion unfortunately shewed that his Lordship judged too favourably of the state of the public mind, and was scarcely aware of the magnitude of the treasonable associations. He now drew towards his seventieth year, and the progress of infirmity was accelerated by the calamities of his country. The proposition of the Union affected him to a degree which we, on this side of St. George's Channel, could scarcely suppose to be possible in a man who was so zealous for the maintenance of a connection with England. Yet, when we find that, so far back as 1757, when the Irish parliament was little better than a shadow, an Union could not be mentioned, we may well conceive the odium which, after the regeneration of 1782, must exist against a measure that threatened, in the opinion of the Irish, the extinction of their political consequence. So secret was government, with regard to this obnoxious project, that the report of it was treated as an idle rumour till within a few months of its being actually brought forwards. This is sufficiently apparent from the following letters of his Lordship, one of which was addressed to Dr. Haliday, and the other to the author of these Memoirs:

"Dublin, October 15, 1798.

"Why, yes, my dear Doctor, I am, indeed, sadly indisposed; old age, which insensibly steals upon the happy and healthy, seems to have seized me by sudden invasion. But no wonder. Such must always be the case, when the corrosion of care co-operates with that gradual decay which time must ever produce. The town is now filled with reports, that an Union will speedily be attempted. How far this may be true, I cannot presume to say, but the unhappy always fear the worst. Has this report reached you? If it has, tell me how it is received."—

"Dublin,

" Dublin, November 8, 1798.

" The report to which you allude, and which is, I fear, but too well grounded, has put a finishing stroke to that misery of mind with which every occurrence has, for some time past, contributed to afflict me. As soon as the rumour became prevalent, I thought it my duty to wait on the Lord Lieutenant. I deprecated the measure for many, many reasons, but said I would now trouble him with one only; that it would, more than any other, contribute to the separation of two countries, the perpetual connection of which was one of the warmest wishes of my heart. His Excellency received my discourse with the utmost politeness; expressed his obligation, and his firm assurance, that every opinion of mine was founded on the best motives; but declined, for the present, saying any more on the subject. From this you may readily perceive that this business is most certainly in agitation. Lord Clare, as I am told, makes no secret of its being a principal cause of his voyage to England, and two things only can, I fear, prevent its being brought forward; remonstrances from the English trading towns, and the firm opposition of individuals here. The former is, I am assured, probable, but may only tend to render the treaty worse for this country; and as to the latter, both you and I are too well acquainted with our fellow-legislators to put much trust in them. The state also of the people is, from many causes, highly unfavourable. They, who are still rebels in their hearts, would like the measure as a mean of separation. But I can write no more. My eyes, which are beyond expression weak, totally fail me, and the subject makes me sick."—

' When the question came before Parliament, forty-six Lords,' says Mr. Hardy, ' were for entertaining it, nineteen against it. In the House of Commons the contest was very different. The first debate continued from five in the afternoon till ten o'clock the next morning, when the Court carried the question by a majority of one. The debate was resumed on the report of the address; the sitting was of equal length with that of the preceding evening. On the division, the Court was in a minority. The numbers were, 106 for the Union, 111 against it. This victory closed all further proceedings on the subject during the remainder of this session.'

The end of Lord Charlemont's career now approached; his constitution rapidly gave way under the attacks of continual indisposition; and he expired on the 4th August 1799, in his seventy-first year, leaving behind him, says Mr. Hardy, the reputation of an ' excellent man; of morals unstained; of mind and manners most elegant.' It is remarkable that, although his Lordship's intercourse with mankind was extensive, and his style in conversation very fluent, he never could speak in public. This defect, which he always lamented, was, no doubt, owing to his having neglected to cultivate the habit in the early part of life. Of literature and the fine arts he was a zealous admirer, and liberal patron, to the injury indeed of his fortune. Though fond of popularity, he never courted it at the

expence of principle. He became a married man at the age of forty, and in this, as in all his actions, consulted the impulse not of ambition but of esteem and affection. His eldest son was returned for the county of Armagh in 1798. — No man was more amiable than his Lordship in domestic life.

'Sometimes,' says Mr. Hardy, 'not frequently, he was irritable, but easily appeased. That irritability shewed itself more in the House of Commons than any other place whatever. Among the country gentlemen he had numerous friends, and very general influence. If some of those gentlemen took a part in debate, or voted in a manner which he had reason to imagine was directed by oblique motives, they were certain, if they met him in the lobby, of encountering a tolerably sharp reprimand. The importance of the House of Commons was, he used to say, in a great measure sustained by the county members, and when such men relinquished their independence, they relinqtished every thing. But his anger was not often displayed; and so transient, that it could not be said to derogate from that suavity of manners which so eminently characterized him. From some prejudices, or dislikes, he was not free. Whence it arose, I know not, but he had, through life, almost a repugnance to the French. Of his friend, the Duc de Nivernois, he would, after speaking highly of him, generally add, "but he is not a Frenchman, he is an Italian." His life, when in Dublin, and not engaged by the Volunteers, was extremely uniform. He was on horseback every morning, and afterwards employed in various business till about one o'clock; at that time, or soon after, he went to his library, and remained there till almost dinner time. His friends had then constant access to him; and, considering the frequent interruption of visitors, it is a matter of some surprize that he was enabled to write so much as he did. But it is a proof that not one moment of his time was unemployed. When parliament was sitting, he regularly attended his duty there; and as the Lords, if not detained by particularly important business, rose rather early, he was to be met every day in the House of Commons, where, from long usage, he was almost regarded as a member. Those who have sat next to him, during a debate, cannot forget the vivacity and justness of his remarks, on the different speakers. —As to his person, Lord Charlemont was of the middle size, or rather above it; but he stooped considerably, especially towards the latter part of his life; the effect, I believe, of ill health.'

Having now accompanied his Lordship to the end of his career, it is time that we bestow our attention on his biographer; and here we cannot help remarking a most unlucky coincidence in default between Mr. Newenham and Mr. Hardy. Dissimilar as are their subjects, it is difficult to say which of the two has committed the greater trespass on the score of diffuseness and want of order. Mr. Hardy indeed appears to disclaim all arrangement except in dates, and has neither chapters nor index, nor table of contents. The matter which makes up the body of his book is of three kinds; political history, political reflection,

reflection, and miscellaneous letters. Of the history we have already given our opinion in the introduction to this review; with the letters we have no fault to find: but, as to the reflections, we have often wished them, we confess, both much more concise and much more sprightly. They are couched in a style so abundant in words, and so deficient in point, that we scarcely know to what we should compare it, except to the long and ponderous effort with which he describes his countryman, Flood, as toiling through an elaborate argument on the law of Poynings.—Another fault, of a very different kind, arises from Mr. Hardy's fondness for anecdote; which has made him introduce much that might have been better omitted: part of it being extraneous to his subject, such as (p. 92.) the comments on the Duke de Nivernois; part of doubtful authority, such as that which relates (p. 103.) to Primate Stone, and which he is afterwards obliged to disavow; while a third part, as (p. 62., the procession of the ladies,) must be set down as too trifling for the gravity of the work. If the mere admission of these heterogeneous matters can be tolerated, let them be dismissed with all possible brevity. Conciseness, however, is a quality which a biographer will not learn from Lord Charlemont; his Lordship's epistolary compositions being in no slight degree elaborate and diffuse.

Large as this volume is, we are still at a loss for information on many parts of Lord Charlemont's proceedings; such, for example, as the terms on which he stood with Earl Harcourt during the vice-royalty of that nobleman. Another exception, which we must offer, regards the sanguine and exaggerating tone which pervades the author's narration of events, and still more his delineation of character;—the exaggeration, we confess, of a liberal mind, delighting to applaud, and reluctant to condemn. Negligence of composition leads Mr. Hardy sometimes into common-place reflections, and oftener into awkwardness of language. Another peculiarity in which he unluckily resembles Mr. Newenham, though with less extravagance, is the use of quaint words. 'Habitude' for *habit*, 'stabilitated' for *established*, and 'astounded' for *astonished*, are substitutions by which Mr. Hardy seems to us to lose more on the score of singularity than he gains by the imagined energy of the expression. Yet, notwithstanding this catalogue of objections, the reader, who takes an interest in the history of Irish politics, will be much gratified by a perusal of the book. In addition to serious information, he will be amused with several anecdotes characteristic of the freedom of Irish manners. Sir William Osborne, an old member of the House of Commons, is stated (p. 143.) to have inquired about a new member who had made his first speech on the side of opposition, and to have said,

said, "If the Opposition have enlisted him, they are in the right; for he has the best face for a grievance I ever saw."—When Mr. Flood forsook the Treasury-bench, and resumed, after a long absence, his station among his old friends, a member addressed him thus:

"*O lux Dardaniæ, spes ô fidissima Teucrûm,*
Quæ tantæ tenuere moræ?"

In describing (p. 293.) a session of remarkable tranquillity, Mr. Hardy calls it a session of 'parliamentary famine' to those members on the Treasury-side whose hopes of place and revenue were founded on their exertions in the House. One of these disinterested personages, on seeing a thin minority defile past him into the lobby, exclaimed to them, "The Lord increase your questions, the Lord increase your numbers! I shall never be a commissioner of revenue, or any thing else, at this rate!"

We shall now take leave of these Memoirs by two short extracts; the first from a letter of Lord Charlemont, describing the impression produced on him by a speech from Lord Moira in the Irish House of Peers:

"Dublin, March 20, 1798.

"They who censure Lord Moira's speech are, in my opinion, possessed of neither taste nor judgment. Nothing could be better than his matter, unless his manner, which even surpassed the sanguine hopes of friendship; animated, though cool, and dignified without pomp. His first statement was excellent, but his reply was incomparable. The goodness of his heart, incapable of allowing him to do any thing which might be attended by possible mischief, prompted his moderation, and the soundness of his understanding led him to believe that he was far more likely to carry his point by moderated firmness than by any excess of violence. But that which most of all delighted and surprized me, was his wonderful coolness, and self-possession, which were such as to persuade every one who beheld him, that he would have been just as cool if commanding a line of troops exposed to the hottest fire of the enemy."

The other is a short character of the late Lord Clare by Mr. Hardy:

'I shall not attempt to speak of those of whom I know but little. One noble person, whose unpopularity was, however, entirely of his own creation, and in which no subordinate agent could have any share, I must beg leave briefly to mention. As a statesman, Lord Clare had many faults; but the vices which so often degraded that character did not belong to him. He was above all circumvention, all corruption whatever. Open and undisguised, his ambition, and his temper, held no interrupted, but a uniform, mingled sway over him. Acrimonious, impatient, overbearing, so far from wishing to conciliate (I speak of his public deportment,) he made use of language

guage so revolting, so perversely unrestricted, that he often disobliged, nay made enemies even of those who acted in concert with him. That his parliamentary opponents therefore were never spared by him, cannot be a matter of surprize.'

According to the news-papers, Mr. Hardy himself has quitted this scene of worldly contention since the appearance of the volume which we now close.

ART. V. *Mémoires de Frédérique Sophie Wilhelmine de Prusse, Margrave de Bareith, Sœur de Frédéric-Le-Grand; Ecrits de sa Main En deux Tomes.* 8vo. Brunswick, Paris, et Londrés chez Colbourn. 1812.

Memoirs of Frederica Sophia Wilhelmina, Princess Royal of Prussia, Margravine of Bareith, Sister to Frederic the Great. Written by Herself. Translated from the Original French. 2 Vols. 8vo. pp. 375. in each Vol. 1l. 1s. Boards. Colbourn. 1812.

A VIEW of the interior of a court, and of the private life of Kings and Queens, what a treat for the mass of ordinary subjects! Dazzled by the splendors of royalty, what scenes of happiness must they not anticipate! Here, if any where, they may expect to see the highest possible felicity of man. Here all that birth, titles, honours, splendor, and power, can confer, will surely be realized; so that to disclose the lives of Princes must serve only to excite the envy of their subjects, and to make them discontented with their humble lot. This, however, is a vulgar error, which experience and observation will soon dissipate. When Princes and Princesses write their memoirs, they often induce us to consider a palace as a Pandemonium rather than an Elysium, and cure us of repining at the inferior condition in which Providence has placed us. We can feel no wish to exchange stations with them; and, instead of surveying them with envy as those privileged mortals for whom all that is valuable in the world was especially created, we extend towards them our commiseration. We are told, indeed, that a crown is lined with thorns: but the vulgar cannot see these thorns, on account of the ermine and jewels which cover them; and, fascinated by the grandeur and pageantry of a court, they are not aware of the misery which may be found in "Kings' Houses." When, however, the veil is drawn aside, when the enchantment is dissolved by the touch of Ithuriel's spear, and the *Dramatis Personæ* disclose the feelings and sentiments of their souls, all the warm and brilliant tints which once were thrown over the picture disappear, and dark repulsive shades involve the whole. If courts be such as the Princess-Royal of Prussia describes them, who can wish to live in them? If the sons and daughters of Sovereigns are destined to a hundredth part of the

the sufferings which she experienced, who can envy the lot of Princes? In a court, all the bad passions of the human breast are commonly in full activity; — pride, jealousy, mistrust, duplicity, envy, and revenge, which lead to all the arts of intrigue, dissimulation, and falsehood. Each party employs spies, the members of the royal house become suspicious of each other, and, finding themselves betrayed by their confidential servants, "the sweetness of affiance" is so destroyed that, in the host of prostrate and apparently servile attendants, they cannot count on one real friend. They feel that power creates homage, not love; that truth is excluded by flattery; and that, with all the symbols of enjoyment, they want the reality. The immediate offspring of royalty, early imbued with the pride of high birth, become the slaves of form and etiquette; and, deprived of liberty of choice in forming the most important connection of life, their marriage is made an affair of state-policy.

God forbid that *all* courts should display these bad features; yet we have not, by these preliminary remarks, sufficiently prepared the minds of our readers for tracing the melancholy details of the life of Wilhelmina, the eldest daughter of the first of the house of Brandenburg who was born King of Prussia, and the sister of Frederic the Great. This Princess seems to have been destined to no ordinary share of suffering. Her father, Frederic-William, a man of a most violent and passionate temper, was married in 1706, when he was Prince-Royal, to Sophia Dorothea Princess of Hanover, who is here said to have had 'all the pride and the haughtiness of that house concentrated in her person.' On the 3d of July 1709, Wilhelmina was born; and, coming into the world at a time when a Prince was the ardent expectation, she was very ungraciously received. Not only by the King and Queen but by those who were placed about her person, she appears to have been treated with great harshness and severity; with so much, indeed, as in some instances it is not easy to reconcile with the respect due to a Princess. Her governess, Miss Letti, was accustomed to beat her, to throw her down, to kick her, and even to 'make her bleed like an ox;' and such were her sufferings from cruel treatment, that, when a child, she wished to have quitted this world. Speaking of her governante, she says, 'few days passed without her exercising the strength of her formidable fists upon my poor body. I spent my nights in weeping; I was in a continual despair; I had not a moment of recreation; and I grew quite stupid: my vivacity vanished.' It is singular that, after such extreme harshness in a governess towards her royal pupil, any kind feeling could exist in the latter towards the former; yet, when Miss Letti was dismissed, the Princess-Royal loaded her with presents; an act of beneficence which was

was sadly requited, since the governess *robbed* the Princess of every thing, 'leaving her not a gown to put on.'

Under her new superintendant, Madame de Sonsfeld, Wilhelmina was treated with gentleness, and made a rapid progress in her studies: but the year 1723 opened with new vexations. Having now reached the age of fourteen, her royal parents occupied their thoughts with her future marriage; and the quarrels, intrigues, and cruelties, which this subject introduced, constitute the burden of these Memoirs. The King and the Queen could not agree in the disposal of their daughter, and the persecutions which she underwent from both rendered her completely miserable. While the Queen employed all possible address to raise her eventually to the throne of Great Britain, by marrying her to the Prince of Wales, the King would have been satisfied with a German connection. Grumkow and the rest of the Prussian ministers were engaged in a series of intrigues to promote their respective views: the Queen also intrigued, to carry on her designs in opposition to the King; and the whole court was converted into spies and informers, who rendered the situation of the Princess-Royal truly wretched. At one moment she was exposed to the indignation of her father, who, giving way to the paroxysms of rage, treated her with even brutal violence; at another time, she was overwhelmed by the scorn and cruelty of the Queen. The King suspected the Queen and the whole of his court to be plotting against him; and even the Prince-Royal (afterward Frederick the Great) fell under his displeasure, and was treated with so much harshness that he resolved on flight. It is impossible for us to detail all the particulars of this court-history, which occupy many pages: but we shall give a few traits. The Princess, at the instigation of the Queen, expressing her reluctance to marry the Duke of Weissenfeld, (the husband whom the King had chosen) her irritated father gave way to the most ungoverned rage, passed a whole day in abusing her and the Prince-Royal, called her the *English baggage*, (suspecting her of an inclination for the English connection,) forced her to eat the most unwholesome food, threw a plate at her head, dragged her by the hair, and in one instance, havingly sparingly helped the Princess and her brother, he 'spit on the bit left in the dish, to prevent their tasting of it.' (Vol. i. p. 159.) At another time, seizing the Prince-Royal by the collar, he beat him in the most cruel manner. In short, according to this representation, the court of Berlin was a perfect Bridewell. We cannot give a better idea of the passion and wrath of the King than by transcribing his daughter's account of his behaviour towards the Prince-Royal, who was taken after having attempted to escape, and

and also towards the Queen, whom he suspected of having been privy to that project:

'A strong guard, commanded by Lieutenant-Colonel Borck, sent by the King to meet the Prince, overtook him, and conducted him to a house in the town close to the residence of the King; who was carefully kept ignorant of this last attempt. The King himself examined the Prince the next day. There was no one with his Majesty but General Mosel, an officer of fortune, whom his valour and merit had raised to that rank. The King's first question, and which he proposed in a furious tone, was this: "*Why have you attempted to desert?*" (These were his very words.) "*Because,*" answered the Prince in a firm tone, "*you have not treated me as your son, but as a worthless slave.*" — "*Then you are,*" replied the King, "*nothing but a base deserter, without honour.*" — "*I have as much honour as you,*" said the Prince: "*I have only attempted what you told me a hundred times you would do, if you were in my place.*" Vexed at this last answer, the King, in a transport of rage, drew his sword, and was going to run him through. General Mosel perceived his intentions, and placed himself between them, to parry the blow. "*Run me through, Sire,*" exclaimed he; "*but spare your son.*" These words arrested the King's fury. He ordered my brother to be reconducted to his house. The General remonstrated strongly with the King, and represented to him, "that he would always be master of the person of his son; that he ought not to condemn him without hearing him; and finally, that he would commit an irremissible crime, if he became his executioner. He intreated his Majesty at the same time to have him examined by honourable and loyal men, and not to see him any more, since he could not sufficiently master his passion to bear his presence." The King approved of these suggestions, and complied with them.

'He remained but a few days at Wesel, and then prosecuted his journey to Berlin. Before he left Wesel he added General Dossow to the two other guards of my brother, and ordered them to follow him in four days, leaving them sealed instructions, in which the place was named whither they were to take him, and which they were not to open before they had got to the distance of some German miles from Wesel.

'My brother was adored all over the country. The cruel treatment which he had experienced from the King excused, in some degree, his attempts. Fears were entertained for his life, from the well-known violence of the King. Several officers, who had at their head Colonel Groebnitz, resolved to risk every thing to set the Prince free. They had already procured him the dress of a peasant girl, and some ropes to let himself down from the window; when General Dossow deranged these plans by getting iron bars fixed in the window. This General was a favourite of the King, to whom he reported every thing. Unfortunately, the favourites of the monarch were all men of wicked dispositions. This was a true imp of Satan, who injured the virtuous and oppressed the poor. The four days being elapsed, they set out with the Prince, and took him, according

cording to the King's orders, to a small market-town, named Mittenwalde, three German miles distant from Berlin.'—

'I return to the interview between the King and the Queen. Her Majesty was alone in the King's room when he arrived. The moment he saw her, though at a distance, he bawled out, "*Your worthless son is no more; he is dead.*"—"*What!*" cried the Queen, "*have you had the barbarity to kill him?*"—"*Yes, I tell you,*" continued the King, "*but I want his writing-desk.*" The Queen went to fetch it; I availed myself of that moment to see her: she was distracted with anguish, and continually crying, "*Heavens! my son! Just Heavens! my son!*" I fell breathless and fainting into the arms of Madam de Sonsfeld.

'When the Queen delivered the desk to the King, he broke it into pieces, seized the letters, and took them with him. The Queen then returned to the room, where I was just recovering. She told us what had happened, and exhorted me to shew some fortitude. Our hopes were a little revived by Mrs. Ramen, who assured the Queen that my brother was alive; that she had her information from a good quarter. The King came back in the mean time. We all ran up to him to kiss his hands: but he had scarcely cast his eyes upon me, when anger and fury overpowered him. He grew black, his eyes sparkled with rage, and he foamed at the mouth. "*Infamous baggage!*" said he to me, "*dare you shew yourself before me? Go and keep company with your rascally brother.*" In uttering these words, he seized me with one hand, and he struck me several times in the face with his fist: one of his blows fell upon my temples so violently that I fell backwards, and should have split my head against a corner of the wainscot, had not Madam de Sonsfeld broke my fall by seizing me by my head-dress. I remained senseless on the ground. The King, no longer master of himself, strove to renew the blows, and trample upon me; but the Queen, my brothers and sisters, and all who were present, prevented him: they all surrounded me; which gave Madam de Kamken and Madam de Sonsfeld time to lift me up. They placed me in a window-seat which was close by; but seeing that I continued senseless, they sent one of my sisters for a glass of water and some salts, with which they insensibly recalled me to life. As soon as I was able to speak, I reproached them for the pains which they took with me, death being a thousand times more agreeable than life in the situation in which we were. To describe its horror is impossible.

'The Queen was uttering mournful screams: her fortitude had forsaken her; she was wringing her hands in despair, and running disconsolate through the room. The face of the King was so greatly disfigured by his rage, that one could not look upon him but with terror. My brothers and sisters, the youngest of whom was four years old, were embracing his knees, and endeavouring to move him by their tears. Madam de Sonsfeld was supporting my head, which was bruised and swollen by the blows I had received. Can a more affecting picture be conceived?

'The King, it is true, had changed his tone; he confessed that my brother was still alive; but his horrible menaces of having him sentenced to death, and myself confined between four walls for the

[illegible] the accomplice in the attempt of the Prince-Royal, which he called high treason; and of having had a love-intrigue with Katt, by whom, he said, I had had several children. My governess, being unable to restrain herself on hearing such foul calumnies, had the courage to answer: "That is not true; and whoever reported any thing like it to you has imposed upon your Majesty." The King made her no reply, and recommenced his invectives. The fear of losing my brother wrought upon me, and I called out as loudly as my weakness would allow, that "I consented to marry the Duke of Weissenfeld, if the King would grant life to my brother." The violent noise which the King was making prevented his hearing me. I was going to repeat the same declaration; but Madam de Sonsfeld kept my mouth close with a handkerchief. I was struggling to remove the handkerchief, and turning my head round, when I beheld poor Katt crossing the palace-yard, attended by four horse-guards, who were conducting him to the King. Though pale and depressed, yet he took off his hat to bow to me. His and my brother's trunks, which had been seized and sealed, were carried after him. A moment after, the King was informed that Katt was brought. He left the room, exclaiming "*Now I shall have a plea for condemning the rascally Frederic and the baggage Wilhelmina: I shall find motives sufficiently weighty to have them beheaded.*" Madam de Kamken and Mrs. Ramen followed the King. The latter stopped him by the arm, saying, "If you wish to have the Prince-Royal put to death, you ought at least to spare the Queen; she is innocent of all this, you may believe me upon my word; treat her gently, and she will do whatever you wish." Madam de Kamken addressed him in a different manner: "You have hitherto," said she, "valued yourself on being a just, equitable monarch, and fearing God. The Lord has rewarded you for it, and loaded you with his blessings: but tremble to deviate from his holy commands, and dread the effects of Divine justice. It punished two sovereigns, who shed, as you intend to do, the blood of their sons; Philip II. and Peter the Great died without male heirs; their dominions have been a prey to foreign and intestine wars; and those two monarchs, from having been the admiration of the world as great men, have become the execration of mankind. Recollect yourself, Sire; the first impulse of your anger may still be pardoned, but it will be criminal if you do not endeavour to overcome it."

'The King let her go on without interruption; he looked at her for a while, and when she had ceased speaking, he at length broke silence in these terms: "*You are very bold to address me in such language: however, I am not angry at it: your intentions are good; I admire your frankness, it increases my esteem for you; go and pacify the Queen.*"

'This trait is so admirable on both sides, that to recount it is to bestow upon it the praises which it deserves. Indeed, the moderation of the King in the midst of his rage, and the courage of Madam de Kamken to expose herself to his wrath, do them both infinite honour.'

As to the Prince's confidential friend, M. Katt, every art was employed to save him from the King's vengeance, and (incredible to say) the Queen and Princess fabricated, in the short space of three days, six or seven hundred letters, which they substituted in the room of those that were destroyed in Katt's writing-desk before it fell into the King's hands: but he was tried and condemned; and to increase the sufferings of the Prince-Royal, who was made a prisoner in the fortress of Custrin, the King ordered Katt to be executed under the Prince's window. The brutality of the proceeding must be execrated by every reader.

'The day before Katt was brought to Custrin, General Lepel, governor of the fortress, and the President Munchow, had conducted my brother to an apartment that had been purposely prepared for him on the floor above that where he had lodged. He there found a bed and some furniture. The window-curtains were let down, which at first prevented his seeing what was going on without. A plain brown coat was brought to him, in which he was obliged to dress himself. I forgot to state that a similar coat had been given to Katt. The General, having then drawn up the curtains, pointed out to the Prince a scaffold covered with black, and as high as the window, which had been widened, and the bars of which had been removed. After this, both the General and Munchow retired. This sight, and the downcast look of Munchow, induced my brother to think that sentence of death was going to be passed upon him, and that these preparations regarded himself, which caused him a violent agitation.

'General Lepel and President Munchow entered the Prince's room in the morning a little before Katt appeared, and endeavoured to prepare the Prince in the best manner they could for this horrible scene. It is said that he was in such a state of despair and grief as had never before been witnessed. In the mean time, Schenk was rendering the like friendly office to Katt. On entering the fortress, he said to him, "Continue firm, my dear Katt; you are going to undergo a severe trial; you are at Custrin, and you will see the Prince-Royal." "Rather say," answered Katt, "that I am going to have the greatest consolation that could have been granted to me." With these words he ascended the scaffold. My unfortunate brother was then forced to stand at the window. He attempted to throw himself out of it; but was prevented. "*I intreat you, for Heaven's sake,*" said the Prince to those who were around him, "*delay the execution; I shall inform the King that I am ready to renounce my right to the crown, if his Majesty will pardon Katt.*" M. de Munchow stopped the Prince's mouth with a handkerchief. When the Prince saw Katt, he exclaimed, "*How wretched I am, my dear Katt! I am the cause of your death. Would to Heaven I were in your place!*" — "*Ah!*" replied Katt; "*if I had a thousand lives, I would sacrifice them all for your Royal Highness.*" At the same time he dropped on his knees. One of his servants attempted to blindfold him, but he would not suffer it; and elevating his thoughts to heaven, he ejaculated, "*My God! I commit my soul into thy hands!*" Scarcely had he pronounced these words,

words, when his head, cut off at one blow, rolled at his feet. The trunk, in its fall, extended its arms towards the window where my brother had been: but he was there no longer: he had fainted away, and the gentlemen about him had laid him on his bed, where he remained senseless for some hours. When he recovered his senses, the first object that struck his eyes was the mangled corpse of poor Katt, which had been placed in such a manner that he could not avoid seeing it. This ghastly object threw him into a second swoon, which was succeeded by a violent fever. M. de Munchow, in spite of the orders of the King, let the curtains down, and sent for physicians, who found the Prince in a very dangerous state. He would not take any thing that was given him. His mind was so bewildered, and his agitation so great, that he would have destroyed himself, had he not been prevented. Religious considerations, it was thought, would soften him; a clergyman was sent for to comfort him: but all in vain; the violent convulsions ceased only when his strength was exhausted. Tears succeeded to these dreadful agitations. It was with extreme difficulty that he was prevailed upon to take medicine. Nothing could induce him to do it, but the representation that he would also cause the Queen's death and mine, if he persisted in his own destruction. A profound melancholy fastened upon him for a long time, and for three successive days his life was in imminent danger. The body of Katt remained exposed on the scaffold until sun-set. It was buried in one of the bastions of the fortress. The next day the executioner went to demand the payment for this execution from Field-Marshal Wartensleben *, which had nearly cost him his life, so greatly did it affect him.'

After all these degradations and sufferings, the Prince-Royal, at the instigation of Grumkow, obtained the King's pardon, and was restored to favour, in 1730.—If, however, the Prince escaped from persecution, such was not the case with the Princess. Discussions and plans relative to her marriage were still a source of continued vexation. The Queen endeavoured to make her swear that she would marry no other than the Prince of Wales. This oath she artfully evaded: but her dexterity did not save her from being put on very spare diet, and forced to eat a sort of food which we believe is rarely prepared in a royal kitchen for the dinner of a Princess. 'Madam de Sonsfeld and myself,' says the author of this Memoir, 'had nothing to eat but a vile sort of soup made of water and salt, and a hash of stale bones, full of hair and filth.' If this was her diet, well might she remark that she was 'actually starving.' (Vol. i. p. 102.) In the partiality of the Queen for the English alliance the King did not participate, but still preferred the Duke of Wolfenbuttel for his son-in-law: at last, however, the Prince

* 'It will doubtless be recollected that Katt was a relation of the Field-Marshal.'

of

of Wales and the Duke were both renounced, and the Princess was induced to promise the King that she would give her hand to the hereditary Prince of Bareith; though by making this promise she irritated the Queen to "vow her eternal hatred." On Sunday the 3d of June 1731, she was betrothed to the Prince of Bareith in due form.

'I went in the morning in an elegant undress to the Queen. The King was with her. He caressed me much on giving me the betrothing ring, which was a large diamond, and repeated his promise to take care of me all his life-time, if I went through the ceremony with a good grace. He even presented me with a set of gold dishes and plates; adding that it was but a trifle, as he had still greater presents in store for me.

'In the evening, at seven, we went to the state-apartments. A room had been prepared for the Queen, her court, and the foreign Princes, where we sat down to wait for the King. The Queen was in an agitation, which she vainly strove to conceal. She had not said a word to me all the day, and expressed her displeasure merely by her glances. The Margravine Philippa, whom the King compelled to attend at the ceremony, could scarcely restrain her vexation. Her son, the Margrave of Schwedt, bluntly refused to be present, and preferred leaving the town, that he might not hear the noise of the guns. At length the King came with the Prince. He was as much moved as the Queen; which made him forget to betroth us in public in the hall, where the company was assembled. He came up to me, holding the Prince by the hand, and made us change rings. I trembled greatly while doing this. I would have kissed the King's hand, but he lifted me up, and held me for a while closed in his arms. Tears trickled down his cheeks; mine flowed abundantly: our silence was more expressive than any thing we could have said. The Queen, when I bent my knee to her, treated me very coolly. After having received the compliments of all the princely personages who were present, the King ordered the Prince to lead me to the ball-room, and to begin the dance.'

After this ceremony was over, the ministers delivered a dispatch from England which they had delayed to present, and in which the court of St. James's had given a formal assent to Wilhelmina's marriage with the Prince of Wales! The Queen still hoped, therefore, that the intended union with the Margrave might be broken off: but the King was faithful to his engagement; and the Princess was not disposed to any farther delays.

'To confess the real sentiments of my heart,' she adds very ingenuously, 'I wished to be married; the ill-treatment of the Queen, and the hatred which she manifested towards me at every opportunity, reduced me to despair. Excepting Madam de Kamken, I was buffeted about by all the ladies of her court, who tried my patience by the contempt and insolence which they made me undergo. Such is the course of the world; the favour of the great decides all: people

are sought for and adored as long as they are in favour; which when they are deprived of, they are exposed to insult and contempt. As long as I had the hope of a splendid fortune, I was the idol of all; they courted me with the view of sharing one day in my splendour; but the instant these hopes vanished, they turned their backs upon me. I was silly indeed to grieve at the loss of such friends. The magnificence of the court of Bareith was continually praised: I was assured that it far surpassed in splendour the court of Berlin, and that it was the centre of pleasures: but those who were amused with such discourses, had been there in the time of the late Margrave, and were unacquainted with the changes that had since taken place. These brilliant accounts gave me an extreme longing to be there. I felt no antipathy towards the Prince; but I was perfectly indifferent about him. I knew him only by sight, and my heart had not so much levity as to be attached to him before I knew him well.'

When, however, she *did* know him well, her attachment to him was strong, and the union on the whole appears to have been productive of mutual satisfaction. The marriage took place at Berlin on the 20th of November, with great pomp.

'The royal crown was placed on my head with four-and-twenty hair locks as thick as my arm: such were the orders of the Queen. I could not hold my head up: it was too weak to sustain such a weight. My robe was of a very rich silver brocade, with a Brussells gold lace; and my train was twelve yards long. I had *well-nigh* died under this attire. Two ladies of the Queen's household and two of my own carried my train; the two latter were Madam de Sonsfeld, and a sister to my governess, with Madam de Grumkow, and a niece to my persecutor; the King having insisted upon my accepting of the latter. Madam de Sonsfeld was proclaimed Abbess of Wolmerstadt; and the King himself invested her with the insignia of the chapter. We repaired to the state-rooms; of which I shall subjoin a short description.

'They form a suite of six large rooms which lead to a hall magnificently adorned, and equally remarkable for its paintings and its architecture. At the end of this hall are two richly-decorated chambers, forming the passage to a gallery of very fine paintings. All these apartments communicate in a straight line. The gallery, which is ninety feet long, leads to a second suite of fourteen rooms, as spacious and as well decorated as the first; at the extremity of which there is a very extensive hall, destined for the grand ceremonies. There is nothing extraordinary in what I have described: but now comes the marvellous. The first room contains a silver chandelier, which weighs ten thousand Prussian dollars; the whole assortment is equally heavy in proportion. The second room is still more superb; the pier-glasses are of massy silver, and the mirrors twelve feet in height; twelve persons may conveniently sit at the tables placed under these glasses. The chandelier is much larger than in the first room, and the furniture of each apartment increases proportionally in size; the last hall contains the largest pieces. Here are the portraits of the King and Queen, and those of the Emperor and Empress, as large

as life, in massy silver frames. The chandelier weighs fifty thousand dollars: the globe is so large that a child of eight years old might conveniently sit in it: the plates are six feet high, and the stands twelve. The gallery for the musicians is also of silver: in short, this hall contains more than two millions of plate in weight. It is all wrought with much taste: but, after all, it is a magnificence which does not please the sight, and is attended with many inconveniences: for, instead of wax candles, tapers are burnt, which cause a suffocating vapour, and blacken the faces and clothes. The King my father got all this plate after his first journey to Dresden. He had seen in that town the treasure of the King of Poland; he wished to surpass that monarch, and being unable to excel him in precious and rare stones, he bethought himself of getting what I have described, that he might possess a novelty of which no sovereign of Europe had yet been possessed.'

This plate exceeds in massiveness that which was brought from Hanover, and is now in the castle at Windsor.

Mantua was not a greater contrast to Rome than Bareith to Berlin; and though the Princess-Royal was fond of her husband, and glad to escape the tyranny of her parents, she could not accompany the hereditary Prince to the residence of the Margrave of Bareith, his father, without noticing, in a sarcastic way, the poverty of this little German court, at which she arrived January 22, 1732.

'The Margrave, and the two Princesses, his daughters, received me at the foot of the stairs with the court. He conducted me first to my apartment, which was so handsome that it deserves particular mention. I was introduced into it by a long corridor, adorned with the natural tapestry of the spider, and so filthy and dirty, that it almost turned my stomach. I was then conducted into an immense large room, the ceiling of which, although antique, constituted its chief ornament: the hangings appeared to have been very handsome in their time, but were now so old and tarnished, that it would have been impossible to guess what they had represented, without the aid of a microscope. The figures were as large as life, and the faces so faded and full of holes, that they seemed so many spectres. The adjoining closet was hung with a linsey-woolsey, of the colour of dirt; at the side of this was another, the green damask quilting of which had an admirable effect; I say quilting, for it was in shreds, the cloth appearing through innumerable places. I next entered my bed-chamber, which I found decorated with green damask, studded over with golden-coloured eagles, sadly frayed. My bed was so handsome and so very *new*, that in fifteen days time the curtains would have disappeared; for as soon as they were touched by the hand they fell into pieces. This magnificence, to which I had been unaccustomed, surprised me very much. The Margrave presented me with a chair, and we seated ourselves to commence a conversation, in which Telemachus and Amelot were not forgotten.'

During the life-time of her father-in-law, the Margrave, the situation of Wilhelmina at Bareith was not very comfortable. Mutual love prevailed between her and her husband, but she complains bitterly of poverty; and when she appealed to Berlin for relief, she was answered by taunts from the Queen, and was reminded of her folly in marrying a beggar. Even the King, whose affection was returning to her, had pleasure in rallying her on this subject. When she became Margravine, (by the death of her father-in-law, May 17, 1735.) she amused herself by various projects; particularly in the formation of a rural retreat which she called the Hermitage, and which she describes with evident satisfaction, though the artists and landscape-gardeners of the present day will smile at her bad taste *. Ill health introduced her to physicians, or rather introduced physicians to her, though she seems to have no high idea of their skill; and, indeed, if her account can obtain credit, medical science must have then been at a very low ebb in Germany: but we are inclined to suspect that the German physicians of her time were not such fools as she represents them. M. Supperville, at least, is an exception. Being in a very weak state, she requested her father the King to spare her this favourite physician; and, as her husband had procured eight recruits for the King's tall regiment, which was his hobby-horse, he was disposed to indulge his daughter and his son-in-law. Previously to the King's death, which happened May 31, 1740, they were on tolerable terms, and, in spite of the ill-treatment which she had received, she speaks of him with the greatest affection. The singular and heroic death of this monarch is thus described by his daughter:

'He had been very ill the whole night through. At seven in the morning he caused himself to be drawn in his rolling chair to the apartment of the queen, who was still asleep, not believing him so dangerously ill. "*Rise,*" said he to her, "*I have but a few hours to live: I wish to have, at least, the satisfaction of dying in your arms.*" He ordered himself next to be conveyed to my brothers, of whom he took a tender leave, with the exception of the Prince-Royal, whom he ordered to follow him into his apartment. On getting there he sent for the two prime ministers, the Prince of Anholt, and all the Generals and Colonels who were then at Potsdam. After a short discourse, in which he thanked them for their past services, and exhorted them to preserve towards the Prince-Royal, as his only heir, the same fidelity which they had always shown to him, he went through the ceremony of abdication, and gave over all his authority to his son, to whom he delivered a very noble exhortation on the duties of Princes towards their subjects, and recommended particularly to him the care of the army, and especially of the Generals and

* For the description, see vol. ii. p. 290. et seq.

officers

officers present; then turning towards the Prince of Anholt, "*You are the oldest of my Generals,*" said he, "*and you deserve to have my best horse.*" He ordered it immediately to be brought, and seeing the Prince-Royal affected, "*It is the lot of man,*" he said: "*we must all pay the tribute to nature.*" But apprehensive lest his firmness might be shaken by the tears and lamentations of those who were present, he signified to them to withdraw, and gave orders to all his servants to wear a new livery which he had caused to be made for them, and that his regiment should wear a new uniform. The Queen then entered: she had scarcely been a quarter of an hour in the room when the King fainted away: he was immediately put to bed, when by means of the efforts employed he was restored to his senses. Looking around him, and seeing the servants in their new dresses; "*Vanity of vanities,*" said he, "*all is vanity.*" Then addressing his first physician, he asked him if his end was near: the physician having informed him that he had still an half hour to live, he asked for a looking-glass, and having looked at himself in it, he smiled, and said, "*I am very much changed, I shall cut a very ugly appearance when dying.*" He reiterated his question to the physicians, and on their telling him that a quarter of an hour had elapsed, and that his pulse was ascending, "*So much the better,*" he answered; "*I shall soon return to nothing.*" They then wished that two clergymen might enter to pray with him, but he told them that he knew all that they had to say, and that they might therefore withdraw. He became weaker and weaker, and at last expired at mid-day. The new King immediately conducted the Queen to her apartment, where many tears were shed, but whether false or sincere I know not.'

Of this King it might be said, as of the Thane of Cawdor, "Nothing in his life became him like the leaving it."—The character of the Prince-Royal, afterward Frederic the Great, was thus delineated by Supperville, in a conversation with the Margravine:

'He is a Prince of great genius, but he possesses a bad heart and a bad disposition: he is dissembling, suspicious, infatuated with self-love, ungrateful, and viciously inclined. I am much deceived if he do not become a greater miser than the King his father is at present: he has no religion, and has fashioned a morality after his own inclination: all his study is to hood-wink the public, but, notwithstanding his dissimulation, many people have found out his character. He distinguishes me at present for the sake of extending his knowledge, one of his greatest passions being the study of the sciences. When he shall have extracted from me those of which he is ignorant, he will neglect me as he has done many others.'

Between Wilhelmina and the Prince-Royal, her brother, the warmest affection seemed to prevail: but, after the latter became King, a coldness ensued; and this, with a rising jealousy of a lady of her court, with whom she suspected her husband to be in love, threw a shade over the concluding details of her Memoirs.

The account which the Margravine gives of herself ends rather abruptly, and disappoints the reader, who is taught to expect that which he does not find. In truth, these volumes give us only the fragment of a memoir which commences with the year 1706, and is brought down to the end of the year 1742. We are informed by the French editor that the Princess had probably continued her history, since she states her intention of recording the most memorable events of the reign of her brother: but this part of her MS. has never yet been discovered.

Judging by the reflections which are interspersed throughout this journal, we must give the Margravine credit for having improved her mind. Of music and reading she was passionately fond, and she seems to have laboured to acquire a philosophic habit. She wishes to be considered as superior to vulgar credulity and superstition; yet she does not approve of those free-thinkers who reject religion:

'These men,' says she, 'are by no means to my taste; but I cannot bring myself to condemn those whose object is to investigate the truth, and shake off prejudices; I am even convinced that those who accustom themselves to reflect must be virtuous; for in all inquiries after truth we learn to reason accurately, and in learning to reason with accuracy we also learn to love virtue.'

This sentiment is worthy of being amplified.

The composition of the Margravine is easy rather than elegant: but in the English translation the style is thoroughly vulgar. Some of the details are not such as the fastidious will regard as perfectly suited to the pen of a Princess: but delicacy was not a quality of much estimation in German courts. The accounts, also, are often so extraordinary that, if they proceeded from a common pen, they would scarcely be received as true. We advise the editor, before he prepares a second edition, to correct the innumerable errors and vulgarisms with which the English pages are disgraced. In Vol. i. p. 23. we have the expression, 'by a *certain* Clement,' for by *one* Clement; p. 52. 'tried' for tired; at p. 78. we have this low phrase, 'I am full as good as he;' and at p. 79. we are told that 'the Queen was *upon the listen*.' At p. 101. 'methodist' occurs for pietist; p. 197. 'the news which *are* arrived;' and at p. 221. the Princess is made to speak of 'a *plaguy* (*maudite*) visit.' Vol. ii. p. 48. the Margravine's bad Latin should be corrected; p. 104. 'the *table was prolonged* to midnight;' p. 129. 'the Duke, her husband, was *much such another*;' p. 184. 'his genius was *none of the brightest*;' p. 281. 'rich *all of a sudden*;' p. 313. 'in the long run.' All these are instances of the English language of the streets. At p. 213. we have '*extenuated*' for emaciated; at p. 268. words necessary to make sense at the beginning of the third paragraph are omitted; and at p. 290. 'to deceive people by inundating them'

them' is not a proper translation of the French. These and a thousand other blemishes are the more worthy of correction because the Memoirs of the Margravine of Bareith are very interesting, and will probably have many readers.

ART. VI. *A Vindication of the British and Foreign Bible-Society:* in a Letter addressed to the Rev. Dr. Wordsworth, chiefly in reply to his Letter to the Right Hon. Lord Teignmouth. By William Dealtry, M. A. Examining Chaplain to the Bishop of Bristol, Professor of Mathematics in the East-India College, Herts, &c. 8vo. pp. 378. 7s. 6d. Boards. Hatchard.

ART. VII. *An Examination of Dr. Marsh's "Inquiry" relative to the British and Foreign Bible-Society;* in a Series of Letters to the Rev. Dr. E. D. Clarke, Professor of Mineralogy in the University of Cambridge. By the Rev. William Dealtry, A.M. F.R.S. Fellow of Trinity College, &c. 8vo. pp. 127. 3s. 6d. Hatchard. 1812.

ART. VIII. *Three Letters on the Subject of the British and Foreign Bible-Society;* addressed to the Rev. Dr. Marsh, and John Coker, Esq. By the Right. Hon. Nicholas Vansittart, 8vo. pp. 59. 2s. Hatchard. 1812.

ART. IX. *Six Brief Letters, occasioned by the Institution of an Auxiliary British and Foreign Bible-Society at Chelmsford, Essex.* Second Edition. 8vo. 1s. Johnson and Co. 1812.

ART. X. *A Letter to the Right Hon. Nicholas Vansittart, M. P.;* being an Answer to his Second Letter on the British and Foreign Bible-Society; and, at the same Time, an Answer to whatever is argumentative in other Pamphlets, which have been lately written to the same Purpose. By Herbert Marsh, D.D. F.R.S. Margaret Professor of Divinity at Cambridge. 8vo. pp. 54. 2s. Rivingtons. 1812.

NEVER, since the union of the inspired Apostles for the promulgation of the gospel, was an institution formed of more promise than that of the British and Foreign Bible-Society. We cannot help regarding it as an association which does honour to the country in which it originated, and as the most brilliant feature of the present age. Its immediate tendency is to give a new impulse to the cause of Christianity; and to bring the various sects of the Christian world to coalesce in the dissemination of the Sacred Records, in order that, according to the purpose of its Divine Founder, the Gospel may be preached to "every creature under heaven." When the object of this Society was stated to be the universal distribution of the Scriptures *without note or comment*, it might be presumed that it would meet with the hearty approbation of all true Christians, and the opposition of none. Strange to say, however, the proposition has excited a violent controversy*. Fears have been entertained at

* See an account of the commencement of this dispute, Rev. for March last, p. 317.

home that, by an expansive zeal for Christianity in general, the Christianity of the Church of England might suffer injury; Drs. Wordsworth and Marsh have sounded an alarm on the institution of the Bible-Society; and they have objected to the union of Churchmen and Dissenters for the purpose of carrying into effect so comprehensive a plan, and to the distribution of the Scriptures *alone*, within the precincts of the Established Church. These able champions have been fairly met in the field of argument by advocates not less able in behalf of the Bible-Society; and these advocates being, as well as their opponents, members of the Established Church, and warmly attached to its interests, the argument partakes of no sectarian leaven, but the question at issue is tried on the very ground chosen by Drs. W. and M. At the head of the friends of the Bible-Society stands Mr. Dealtry; who considers the nature and operation of this body in all its bearings, and minutely and manfully replies to every surmise and objection urged by its enemies. As a controversialist, it is no mean praise to say that he is fully equal to the learned Churchmen against whom he exerts his quill: in energy, quickness of reply, and dexterity of manœuvering, he is their match; and perhaps in solidity of reasoning, at least in the present instance, he is their superior: we the more regret, therefore, that he has not abstained from all personalities. He contends that the trepidation and fears for the Established Church, expressed by Drs. M. and W., in consequence of the institution of the Bible-Society, and of the general encouragement which it has received, are a gross libel on our excellent Establishment. It is asked, what harm can any class of Christians, who believe their system to be founded on the Word of God, apprehend from the general distribution of the pure Scriptures without *note or comment?* Such a distribution is fair for all parties, and here the Society stops. It does not prevent the Churchman from accompanying the Bible, which he receives from the Society, with a Common Prayer-Book; nor the Dissenter from accompanying it with a copy of the Assembly's Catechism, or any other tract: but these adjuncts are not in the contemplation of the Society: they give away Bibles, and Bibles only.

Forced to consult brevity, we are unable to follow Mr. D., either in his 'Vindication' or his 'Examination,' through the various branches of his argument. It must suffice to observe that, in the former, he takes as wide a range as the nature of the subject would admit; and that, in the latter, he repeats his former argument, in connection with some pointed strictures on the tone and spirit of the "Inquiry." Dr. Wordsworth, having manifested a jealousy for the welfare of the "Society for the Promotion

Promotion of Christian Knowlege," and fearing that the *new* Society for the diffusion of the Scriptures might become the favourite with the public, tries to prove that this latter institution was unnecessary, and that the patronage gained by it must be a loss to the former. Mr. D., however, resists both of these positions; he contends that, as sister-societies, they may harmoniously proceed in the career of benevolence, without crossing or jostling each other; that the new Society, though its principle of admission be more liberal, and its object more extensive, than those of the Bartlett's-Buildings Society, is so far from having injured its funds and narrowed its usefulness, that it has in fact produced an addition to the members as well as given a fresh stimulus to the exertions of the latter: in short, that the Bible-Society has put the Society for Christian Knowlege on the *qui vive*. Mr. D. does not confine himself to this point. To embrace the whole case, he proposes six topics, on which he intends to offer observations:

'The *first* relates to the absolute and paramount importance of circulating the Scriptures.

'The *second*, to the actual want of Bibles in different parts of the world.

'The *third*, to the most effectual means of dispersing them.

'The *fourth*, to the advantages of the Bible-Society.

'The *fifth*, to the objections which yourself and others have brought forward against it.

'I shall then consider, *sixthly*, the remedies which you propose; and conclude with some miscellaneous observations.'

As to the paramount importance of the Scriptures, no ground for debate can exist among Christians; and as to the three succeeding topics, we shall pass them over. The *objections* which have been offered to this apparently *unobjectionable* Society are various, and Mr. D. distinctly replies to eighteen: but, of these eighteen objections, not one would have been started, had the Bible-Society, like that of Bartlett's-Buildings, excluded Dissenters. 'The grand, leading, comprehensive objection, and which does indeed include all the rest,' as Mr. D. says, 'is the constitution of the Society;' "its constitution (to use the words of Dr. Wordsworth) affects and embraces a *novel* union and combination of Churchmen and Dissenters." With this novel combination, the author of the 'Vindication' is delighted; and he describes it as productive of the noblest charity. Adverting to an union of this kind, he observes:

'For the first time in my life, I attended last May the "Ecclesiastical General Council, holden at the Old London Tavern," and most heartily do I wish that you had been by my side. It was, in truth, an animating spectacle! On looking round this assembly, and per-

perceiving on every side the eye beaming with exultation, and the countenance lighted up with the purest expression of Christian liberality, I could not but acknowlege, that there is a point of elevation, even in this world of conflict, where the shibboleths of sects are forgotten, and prejudice and bigotry can find no place. All that is generous in sentiment, or enlarged in comprehension; all the feelings of benevolence, which eloquence could inflame or piety consecrate; all the sympathies which unite man to his brother, and which seem to raise us almost above the privileges of our common nature, were here called into action. If ever I knew any thing of that charity which is depicted in such glowing colours in the Epistle to the Corinthians, I felt it at this time. If there was in that assembly one bosom which was cold and insensible; one heart which was so enchained by the sordid fetters of sect or party, as to feel their influence on such an occasion, it is doomed for life to hardness and degradation; except it be quickened by the special energy of that power, which nothing can withstand, the arm of an omnipotent God.

'Tell me, was this no gain to Christian charity? Away with these calculations of distant possibilites, these germs of I know not what contingencies of evil; to be brought to maturity *ad Græcas calendas*. The Dissenters have been with us; they have seen us; they have marked our love for the Scriptures; their better feelings, as well as ours, have been awakened into life, and they will not soon become dormant.'

In a Society which embraces the glorious object of extending the knowlege of the divine word, little attachments to particular churches and parties must be forgotten; and the chief attention must be fixed on that which constitutes the essence, not on the appendages, of Christianity. If, however, we reverse the principle, the substance is in danger of being sacrificed to the shadow. 'A man,' says Mr. D., 'who places all his religion in forms, and esteems the doctrines of Christianity as of subordinate importance: who supposes the mouth of the priest to be every thing, and the word of God comparatively nothing, is not calculated to make converts: no: the poor in spirit need other instruction than this, and those who seek for salvation must inquire elsewhere.'

Addressing Dr. W., he thus continues:

'It appears to me, then, that you and I greatly differ about the relative value of forms and doctrines, or, at least, about their necessary connection.

'If I were to express the condition of salvation in the shortest terms, I should say, "Believe on the Lord Jesus Christ, and thou shalt be saved:" this belief, however, must be understood to produce its genuine fruits; and a man who has a sound faith, and consequently holy practice, whether he be on the coast of Labrador, or in the Society in Bartlett's-Buildings, is undoubtedly a child of God. Now the impression which accompanies me through the whole of your pamphlet, is this: that you do not lay sufficient stress on the great, essential,

essential, and operative doctrines of the gospel: and some of your fellow-labourers evidently attach more importance to the circumstance of belonging to the Church of England than they do to purity of heart, and holiness of life. The "Country Clergyman," and the author of an "An Enquiry," &c. make no secret of the matter. Now to these notions I cannot accede. It is not absolutely necessary to salvation that a man should be a member of this or that particular church: I belong to the Church of England, because I think it the most pure church in the world; because I think it possesses all the requisites of a church; because I think it contains better helps, and more excellent directions, than any other; because it is established, and wanton separation cannot be vindicated on any good principle. But if I am required to believe that my salvation has little connection with my faith and practice, and that it derives its security from the circumstance of my being a Churchman; I say, that the man who makes this demand betrays a most incorrect opinion of the nature of Christianity, and perverts the Scriptures, by fixing upon doctrines which are essential to salvation a value by no means adequate to their worth and importance. Cowper has so well delineated the characters of those who contend more for the forms than for the substance of religion, that I must be permitted to borrow his language. When the peculiar doctrines of the Gospel have lost their estimation,

> "Then ceremony leads her bigots forth,
> Prepar'd to fight for shadows of no worth:
> While truths on which eternal things depend,
> Find not, or hardly find, a single friend.
> As soldiers watch the signal of command,
> They learn to bow, to kneel, to sit, to stand:
> Happy to fill religion's vacant place
> With hollow form, and gesture, and grimace:
> Such, when the Teacher of his Church was there,
> People and *Priest* the sons of Israel were:
> Stiff in the letter, lax in the design
> And import of their oracles divine;
> Their learning legendary, false, absurd,
> And yet exalted above God's own word."

After having contemplated the questions at issue between himself and Dr. W., relative to the Bible-Society, Mr. D. thus exultingly concludes:

'If ever there was a question triumphant in reason and argument; in good principle and beneficial tendency; in wisdom of establishment and energy of exertion; in the contagion of example and in the creation of resources; in appeals to the most exalted charity and the best feelings of our common nature; in enlargement of benevolence and prodigality of blessing; this is the question. "Sound Churchmen" may view the Society with dislike, and cowards may desert its banners; but it is fenced by bulwarks which will not be overthrown, and founded upon a basis which cannot be shaken. Prejudice may lop its branches, and malignity may nibble its bark, but it will still remain the pride and glory of the forest; it will strike its roots deeper

deeper and wider, and hostility itself will only add to its firmness and its strength.'

The 'Vindication,' however, must not longer detain us; and we pass to the 'Examination,' in which Mr. D. measures lance with Dr. Marsh. Here the insinuations of the Margaret-Professor are resisted, as injurious to the fame and character of the Established Church; and Mr. Dealtry accuses Dr. M. of 'incorrect statement of fact, — of absurd assumption, — of sophistical reasoning, — and of conclusions without premises.' Against those who, in their extreme eagerness to elevate the Liturgy, depress the Bible, he takes his stand; he employs many arguments to prove that the Church cannot be injured by the Society; and, though he is convinced of the solidity of his reasoning, he is sorry for the discussion which has been provoked, thinking that the controversy is calculated to do considerable harm, as having a tendency to divide the Society. While he reminds the Margaret-Professor of the oblique reflection, which his objection to the distribution of the Bible, without an accompanying Prayer-Book, casts on the doctrine of the Liturgy, Mr. D. offers a remark which not less reflects on the Governors of the Established Church; since, though his zeal for the word of God is accompanied with every profession of attachment to the system as by law established, he tells us 'that he has taken the wrong road for preferment.' Dr. M. indeed will probably be a Bishop before him. The mitre stands ready for him, — on the Prayer-Book, not on the Bible.

Mr. Vansittart's 'Letters,' if not so elaborate as the productions of Mr. D. in behalf of the Bible-Society, are composed with the same intention, and discover a mind cultivated and enlarged in no ordinary degree. He writes not only with the politeness of the gentleman, but with the philanthropy of the genuine Christian. So far from concurring with Dr. Marsh in a wish to exclude Dissenters from the Society, Mr. Vansittart sees peculiar advantages in its present constitution:

'The *co-operation* of CHURCHMEN and DISSENTERS *in religious matters*, so far as they can *conscientiously co-operate*, seems to me one of the most efficacious means of *lessening both the political and religious evils of dissent*. It dispels prejudices, promotes candour and good will, and must prepare the mind for the reception of that truth which every one perceives to be no less the object of those who differ from him than his own. From such a communication, the Church of England has nothing to fear, and every thing to hope; as holding *(in our judgments at least)* that *middle line of truth* in which all opposite opinions have a natural tendency to coincide. And is that *truth* more likely to be *acknowledged and embraced* by minds embittered by mutual jealousy and aversion, or by such as have been previously softened by conciliation?

'The existence of *dissent* will perhaps be inseparable from *religious freedom*, so long as the mind of man is liable to error; but it is not unreasonable to hope that *hostility may cease* where *perfect agreement cannot be established*. If we cannot RECONCILE ALL OPINIONS, let us endeavour to UNITE ALL HEARTS.'

Having arranged what he considers to be the objections of Dr. M. to the *new* Institution under the three following heads, —that the Bible-Society produces a disregard to the Liturgy,— that its foreign operations have been mis-stated or exaggerated,— and that its real objects are of a political and not a religious nature,— Mr. V. proceeds to inquire how far these charges are well founded. On the first, he makes this declaration: 'We venerate the Liturgy, as one of the most valuable and important of human compositions; but when attempts are made to place it on a level with the Bible, and to assert that the Bible cannot safely be circulated without it, we are obliged to confess, that the difference is no less than between *divine perfection* and *human frailty*.' On the next subject, he gives a list of the languages or dialects into which the Scriptures have already been translated; the real number of which (exclusive of the Ethiopic) is *fifty-eight*, and not *fifty-four*, as he formerly stated; —and as to the last topic, that a design exists of making the Bible-Society an instrument for bringing about a political purpose, viz. the repeal of the *Test-Act*, Mr. Vansittart treats it as a mere gratuitous assumption, and denies the *minor* of the syllogism by which the learned Professor would establish it. His remarks on this head are not those of a narrow-minded party-man, but of the Christian statesman *.

'With respect to the *Test-Act*, I do not believe that, in principle at least, we should differ. There can be no doubt that the most glorious and happy state of religion upon earth would be that of a community universally agreeing in the belief and practice of true Christianity, unmixed with prejudice or error. But this is a state rather to be desired than hoped, in the present condition of man.

'But there is an inferior degree of happiness more within our prospect, and yet, perhaps, as perfect as human infirmity allows us to hope for, wherein, though all differences of opinion should not be extinguished, yet they may be so refined from all party prejudices and interested views, so softened by the spirit of charity and mutual conciliation, and so controlled by agreement in the leading principles, and zeal for the general interests of Christianity, that no sect or persuasion should be tempted to make religion subservient to secular views, or to employ political power to the prejudice of others.

* Since the publication of these Letters, Mr. V. has become Chancellor of the Exchequer.

'In

'In such a state of things you will agree with me, that the Test-Act would be unnecessary; but I will admit to you, that the present situation of this country is, in my opinion, very different from that which I have described. I confess, however, that I believe the Bible-Society to have a strong tendency to produce such a state of things, and it is one of the points in which I most admire it. In *this* way it *may* become a mean of removing the Test-Act—not by the depression of the Church—not by any accession of political power to the Dissenters—but by burying their differences in cordial union, and leading both parties to a more sincere and genuine practice of religion. But in any other way, I will venture to affirm, that the Bible-Society is as little likely to lead to a repeal of the Test-Act, as to a repeal of the Habeas-Corpus Act. Any attempt to convert the Society to political purposes would certainly be fatal to the Society itself: and of this all the parties composing it are equally convinced.

'That you should think fit to conclude your Inquiry by an insinuation of such purposes, I cannot but regret; and you must be sensible that the imputation of unavowed intentions to an opponent is not only one of the most *vulgar*, but one of the most *dangerous* arts of controversy.'

Mr. Vansittart concludes with hoping that the triumphs of the Bible-Society will be complete, and that 'this nation will *take up the cross* to carry not the sword but the Saviour through the world.'

The author of the '*Six* Letters' espouses the part of the Bible-Society, but rather impairs his argument by aiming at a little low wit: he tells us that 'the alarm is merely the consequence of a *Marsh-ague*;' and he adds that the Margaret-Professor's hint respecting Unitarianism is, in fact, a compliment paid to that which he means to revile.

Notwithstanding the number of assailants whom his "Inquiry" had brought on him, Dr. Marsh returns boldly to the charge; and in his 'Letter to Mr. Vansittart' he replies distinctly to the three propositions which his Right Honourable Friend regards as the substance of his objections to the *new* Society. The order, indeed, in which the propositions are examined, is inverted, that the grand point of debate may be kept for the *bonne bouche*. To shew that the Bible-Society had dealt in splendid exaggerations of their foreign labours, he asserts that the 'Society, according to the last-printed documents, on which alone those splendid descriptions could have been founded, *had not translated even the four Gospels into any one language, into which they had not been before translated*: I have proved, even, that they had not done it of so much as *two* Gospels;'—but this is rather trifling; because, if the translations specified are actually undertaken, and in progress, it is no reflection on the Society that they are not at the present moment ready for distribution. As to the second proposition, the Professor denies

denies having ever advanced it; yet this denial will not answer his purpose; since, when he artfully insinuates that with *religious zeal other objects* were occasionally *associated*, he means objects foreign to the professed object of the Society, that is to say, temporal or political objects. 'I did not *exclude*, as your position implies, the provision for spiritual wants:' but the assertion, "that its real objects are of a political and not of a religious nature," does surely, in the sense meant to be conveyed, exclude the provision for spiritual wants. The word *real* expresses the pith of one of the objections which Dr. Marsh is supposed to feel against the Bible-Society, viz. that its *avowed* was different from its *declared* object. Had Mr. V. said, 'of a political *rather* than of a religious nature,' the Professor's reply would have been shortened: but, though he seems to triumph over his friend's incorrect statement, he gains nothing on the score of argument. In fact, when he specifies the *power* which the Dissenter would derive from the Bible-Society, is it not clear as light that one of his objections to it is a fear lest the Dissenter should obtain power? —When Dr. M. comes to the main subject of his Inquiry, or the consequences of neglecting to give the Prayer-Book with the Bible, he boldly resists the charge of wishing to put the former on an equality with the latter; though his philippic against that *generalized protestantism*, of which Chillingworth was so proud, has a tendency to put the Bible in the back-ground. 'I have called, indeed,' says he, 'the Prayer-Book a proper *companion* for the Bible:' but to this it will be replied, when the universal diffusion of the Bible is the object, that it is more fair in itself, and more honourable to the Bible, to send it forth without a companion. As disputes would arise on the score of a *proper* companion, is it not the wisest plan to send the Bible forth to speak for itself, and to win its way without any human addendum? Never was reasoning employed to less purpose than the following:

'If our Reformers had been of opinion that there was no necessity for Liturgy and Articles, they would not have *composed* our Liturgy and Articles. Whether they acted *rightly* in so doing is a question on which I hope we are not at issue. And if we are not, you cannot consistently appeal to our Reformers for the purpose of overturning my arguments. I plead for the book which our Reformers composed, and urge its *distribution* on the *same principles* on which they recommended its *acceptance*. I urge the distibution of it, not as being *equal* with the Bible, but as being in *conformity* with the Bible.'

If the Professor asserts the Liturgy to be in conformity with the Bible, he must allow that the Bible is competent to perform the work of the Liturgy, even though the Liturgy be not its inseparable companion; or, to use Mr. Vansittart's words, he

he makes the assistance of "*human frailty*" necessary to the success of "*Divine Perfection.*"

Thus does Professor Marsh endeavour in vain "to make the worse appear the better reason." Throughout his Letter, he pertinaciously adheres to his grand position, but he props it with no additional arguments. We think that he is unfortunate in having provoked the present controversy. The spirit and the enlightened character of the age are against him. Even the clergy of his own church reprobate his narrow line of conduct. If his object was to throw down the apple of discord among the members of the Bible-Society, and thus to effect its disunion, the part which he has acted was not liberal; and if his sole view was to cause an enlarged distribution of Prayer-Books within the district occupied by the Established Church, he might have quietly recommended this measure to the Old Society at Bartlett's-Buildings, and have urged an increase of subscriptions for this purpose, without publicly setting his face against the Bible-Society, and endeavouring to infect the public mind with jealousy and suspicion of it, as if its pure zeal for the pure word of God could lead to fatal consequences. We are happy to find that the Bible-Society grows, in spite of all illiberal or mistaken opposition; and to think that it will contribute to melt down the different sects into the general church of Christ at home, while it diffuses a knowlege of the gospel to every nation of the globe.

MONTHLY CATALOGUE,

For SEPTEMBER, 1812.

NOVELS.

Art. 11. *Says She to her Neighbour, What?* By an Old-Fashioned Englishman. 12mo. 4Vols. 1l. 8s. Boards. Newman and Co. 1812.

This novel contains some good sentiments and good advice, but the author cannot write with common grammatical correctness. He says continually, 'she had *took*,' 'he had *undertook*;' and in Vol. ii. p. 112. 'he had better *have partook it*.' In page 177. 'Lady Caroline and *him* (*he*) set out.' Vol. iii. p. 177. 'she had *laid down*;' and p. 284. 'I forced myself to write *tolerable chearful* letters;' page 309. 'I was *forbade* to speak,' &c. — Many inelegant expressions occur, such as in Vol. i. p. 57. 'The major was *dumb-foundered*;' and in Vol. ii. p. 160. 'Frederic and his suite were so *overdone* by their sufferings.' — We find also some extraordinary mistakes: as in Vol. iii. p. 209. where we read of 'the man who looked a NERO, and who moved a God.' This may be an error of the press: but what does the author mean in Vol. ii. p. 257. by '*nipping* up a child in his arms;' or by writing from London into Yorkshire,

Yorkshire, 'to intreat the father to *come over?*' Finally, how are we to understand the phrase '*secundem artem*,' or that of '*meliorated rage*,' in Vol. iv. p. 205.?

The first idea of this work is evidently borrowed from the late popular novel, "Thinks I to Myself;" and, like most parodies, it has less spirit than the original. It is, however, by no means a servile imitation; and, notwithstanding the verbal errors which we have noticed, we can recommend it as a well-conceived exemplification of the evils which may arise from inconsiderate gossipping, and from addressing uncharitable remarks to our *neighbours*.

Art. 12. *Cottage-Sketches, or Active Retirement.* By the Author of "An Antidote to the Miseries of Human Life," "Talents Improved," &c. 12mo. 2 Vols. 9s. Boards. Gale, Curtis, and Fenner. 1812.

Much religious reflection is displayed in these volumes, and they may be useful as containing various examples of the comfort and practicability of active benevolence: but it is difficult to determine for what class of readers they are calculated, since the language is not sufficiently correct to insure attention from cultivated minds; while the story of a masquerade in a farm-house, and the other absurdities of Miss Jones, are so extravagant that we hope they are needless as a warning to persons in a humbler sphere.

Art. 13. *Things by their right Names.* By a Person without a Name. 12mo. 2 Vols. 10s. 6d. Boards. Robinson. 1812.

In several works of fancy which have lately appeared, we have observed, with pleasure, a renunciation of the sickly and perverted sentimentality which renders many such productions either dangerous or disgusting. In the present tale, we find some unnatural incidents; and the depravity of Mr. Fitzosborn in robbing his daughter, with her facile submission to his rapacity, is highly improbable: but, although the adventures of these personages are romantic, the author has aimed at inculcating principles of such laudable piety, that the reader who is amused by his story can scarcely fail of being improved by the moral which it is designed to convey.

Art. 14. *The Adventures of Dick Distich.* 12mo. 3 Vols. 16s. 6d. Wilson. 1812.

This author asserts that 'his book is strictly moral, and that, although humour may be gratified, decency will not be offended:' but we cannot re-echo the praises which he bestows on his performance, since the language is too free for female readers, and the morality is too lax to benefit those of either sex. — The hero of the tale is a libertine, whose adventures are neither amusing nor probable; and, among other characters, a clergyman of the Established Church and a Dissenting minister are both painted as monsters of hypocrisy and meanness: while the attempts at pleasantry are not sufficiently successful to atone for other faults, or to invest the work with any claim to the notice of our readers.

POETRY.

Art. 15. *Sangora*, a Legendary Tale. Crown 8vo. Printed for the Author, and sold by the Booksellers. 1
Some lines in this poem are rendered harsh and obscur affected inversion of the words, but the greater part of it is with simplicity and feeling; and, although it displays no brill imagination, it may be acceptable to those who delight in le lore, and who relish the adventures of crusading barons and minstrels.

Art. 16. *The Shade of Drury;* a Vision, inscribed to Ow Patentees of the Theatre-Royal, Drury-Lane. 4to. 3s. C 1811.
The Shade of Drury (here represented to be as melancholy as ever stood on the banks of the Styx) besets Thalia and mene, for the purpose of urging these ladies to attack poor "J on the ground of his suffering Old Drury to remain so long i but Thalia and Melpomene, had they not been directed to quarter, must have made their supplications in vain. We kn the evidence of facts that this vision was not inspired; and w also, that, if it *had* been inspired, a very indifferent poet was to record it. The beautiful theatre, which has arisen since th was composed, under the auspices of Mr. Whitbread, will a tragedy and comedy full scope for their respective powers; trust that Thalia will not have reason to say that

> 'Broad farce and pantomime, romance and show,
> Tragedies travestied *to tunes go*,
> With fox-chases, and many a water-fight,
> Oft drive my sister and myself to flight.'

A few months produce great changes. The author of thi which was written in the last year, despaired of seeing the th Drury-Lane ever rebuilt; and he declares that

> 'A word of scoff is Drury's fate become:
> All hold irrevocable now its doom.'

He may soon, however, visit a New Theatre, complete for ception of the public: but we cannot compliment this ver having contributed to the falsification of his own prophecy, si Whitbread's zeal in behalf of Old Drury could not have been by such poetry as these pages contain. Poets will play the prophets: but, as Time unfolds his scroll, he often shews thi *Vates* is not *sacer*.

EDUCATION.

Art. 17. *Observations on the most important Subjects of Edu* containing many useful Hints to Mothers, but chiefly inte private Governesses. 12mo. 5s. 6d. Boards. Darton, H and Co. 1812.
This fair writer evinces piety and good sense; and her observa obedience to parents, as well as on attention to the minor duties a

courtesies of life, are excellent; though too much resembling the remarks of Mrs. H. More, on the same subject, to be original. It is indeed difficult to furnish new or striking remarks on the hackneyed topic of education; yet we think that a young instructress may find this volume useful from the judicious and practical advice which it contains.

Art. 18. *Latin Prosody made easy.* By J. Carey, LL.D. Private Teacher of the Classics, French, and Short-Hand. A new Edition, enlarged and improved. 8vo. pp. 387. 10s. 6d. Boards. Longman and Co.

In reviewing the former edition of this work, (No. for April 1801,) its merit induced us to pronounce our opinion in its favour; and in examining the present, we not only see reason to confirm that report, but it is incumbent on us to mention that the treatise is so considerably improved as to become a new book. Indeed, the author seems to have taken great pains in composing it; since nothing but patient industry, close attention, and minute investigation, could have enabled him to treat the subject so well. The various examples which are cited, the able and judicious observations introduced, and the clear method which is adopted, intitle the publication to more than ordinary praise. That it is not free from imperfections, the accomplished scholar may perceive on a perusal: but, as it will probably be in general use at schools, the author may have frequent opportunities of rendering it more complete.

Art. 19. *Latin Prosody made easy.* Abridged for the Use of Schools, from the new and improved Edition. By J. Carey, LL.D. 12mo. pp. 194. Longman and Co.

As expressed in the title-page, this is an abridgement of the preceding volume. It seems to be well calculated for the use of the junior classes, and as an introduction to the subject: but, should the student be desirous of making any progress, we recommend a careful perusal of the larger work, as containing many important particulars not included in the plan of that which is before us.

Art. 20. *Scanning Exercises for Young Prosodians:* containing the First Two Epistles from the *Electa ex Ovidio*, minutely scanned, proved by the Rules of Eton Grammar, and interspersed with occasional Remarks: the whole calculated to save both Time and Labour to both Teacher and Pupil. By J. Carey, LL.D. 12mo. pp. 236. Longman and Co.

This work, as well as the foregoing, evinces the author's judgment and ability in making the juvenile scholar acquainted with the mysteries of Latin verse: indeed, the difficulties experienced by young persons when they are first made to study this subject, and the little aid which they can procure from books to enable them to proceed, are such that any publications of the kind must be welcome. The author therefore deserves well of the public, for the pains which he has taken in clearing the path of the obstacles with which it was encumbered; and we doubt not that, as his works will contribute both to the improvement of the pupil and the ease of his teacher, they will soon become popular in seminaries of classical education.

LAW.

Art. 21. *A practical Abridgment of the Laws of the Customs*, relative to the Import, Export, and Coasting Trade of Great Britain and her Dependencies; (except the East Indies;) including a Statement of the Duties, Drawbacks, and Bounties, directed to be paid and allowed. The whole interspersed with Orders in Council; and brought up to 5th January 1812. By Charles Pope, Controlling Surveyor of the Warehouses in Bristol, and Author of the Compendium of the Warehousing Laws. 8vo. pp. 610. 1l. 1s. Boards. Longman and Co.

Having already had occasion to express a favourable opinion of Mr. Pope's compiling and dissecting labours, (Review for May, p. 98.) we took up this book with more satisfaction than might be anticipated from the uninviting nature of the subject. Without being practical traders, we are perfectly aware of the endless perplexity caused to our merchants by the length and multiplicity of our Custom-house laws, and we cannot wonder that former abridgers have confined their digests to partial views of this extensive subject: — nor has Mr. Pope judged it advisable to embrace the whole, though the topics left out belong to the less permanent and less interesting departments of our fiscal regulations. The laws relating to the East India trade are omitted, for the ostensible reason of its being a monopoly, but probably with a view to the precarious tenure of the charter. With equal propriety, our unfortunate *Orders in Council* are left in the back-ground; and part of our Colonial-Custom-house-law is omitted, in the expectation of an approaching change in that antiquated system. The other exclusions are as follow: the fishery-laws, as relating to a branch of business confined to a few persons; the regulation of wrecks and salvage, as coming under the jurisdiction of the Trinity-house rather than of the Customs; and the part of the statutes that relates technically to the situation of the Custom-house-officers, or to the proceedings touching prosecutions, which are too serious to be referred to any other hand than that of a lawyer. We shall make an abstract of a few interesting articles.

Ireland.—Though the act of Union went a great way in removing duties and restraints on the intercourse between the sister-islands, we are not to take it for granted that the exchange of merchandise between the two is as free as between the different counties of Great Britain. A considerable list of articles may be given, viz. calicoes, haberdashery, hard-ware, muslins, silk-manufactures, refined sugar, cabinet-ware, clothes, &c., which remain subjected to a duty of ten per cent., or upwards, on importation from Ireland to Great Britain, until the end of the year 1820. These are called *counter-vailing duties*, and form, with correspondent Excise-duties, the concession which Mr. Pitt found necessary to tranquillize English manufacturers; who were alarmed lest the comparatively low rate of labour in Ireland should lead to a transfer of their fabrics across St. George's Channel. Though the price of labour is a great object, these gentlemen seem scarcely to have been aware of the powerful hold which is always given to local manufacture by rooted habits and established machinery. To fix a new manufacture in a strange soil is too com-

plicate

plicated a task to be the labour of a few years. Ireland, moreover, has rapidly increased her rate of wages, by depreciating her currency, in consequence of the multiplication of country-banks. This, however, neither our manufacturers nor any of us had the gift of foreseeing: but they might have seen that the act of Union contained in itself an antidote to their terrors, and was a sure method of raising the rate of wages in Ireland. Nothing tends so much to equalize the price of provisions, labour, and merchandise, throughout an empire, as facility of communication. Hence the little difference between the Dutch Provinces, or between one English county and another. If the condition of England, in this respect, be analyzed, the existing difference in the rate of labour and provision will be found to hold principally in one way, namely, between the metropolis and the rest of the kingdom. Great as are our accommodations for conveyance of provisions by land and water, the growth of our metropolis has exceeded all proportion; and this growth, which we consider as a serious evil, arises from the circumstance of our mercantile and government-capital having been fixed on the same spot.

Apprentices. — Our laws, with a view to train seamen, prescribe that the owner of every vessel from 30 to 50 tons shall be obliged to take one apprentice, one more for the next 50 tons, and an additional apprentice for every additional 100 tons. These apprentices are protected from the impress during the term of three years.

Holidays. — The number of holidays was formerly a serious impediment to the transaction of Custom-house business; the merchants finding it necessary to regulate the time of shipping or discharging goods by an attention to these incessantly-recurring obstacles. The administration of 1806, short-lived as it was, lasted long enough to correct this abuse; so that all are now days of business except Christmas-day, Good Friday, the anniversary and birth-day of the reigning Sovereign, the anniversary of the Restoration of Charles II., that of the Heir-apparent to the Crown, and the day appointed for a general fast or thanksgiving.

Guernsey. — This, as well as the neighbouring islands, Jersey, Alderney, and Sark, is open to the free and untaxed importation of foreign wines, spirits, and other articles, without any restriction but such as is necessary to prevent smuggling them over among us. With this view, it is provided that spirits shall not be put on board of any vessel below 100 tons burden, nor in any cask of less size than 60 gallons. Wine, in like manner, can be shipped in no vessel below 60 tons, nor in any cask of less contents than a reputed hogshead. The Isle of Man has not, like Guernsey and her neighbours, an unlimited privilege with regard to the import of foreign goods; the vicinity of this island to the adjoining coasts having afforded too much facility to smuggling. The inhabitants are still allowed to import wine and spirits for their own use, duty free: but the quantities of them, as well as of tea, coffee, and tobacco, are limited; and the whole takes place through the medium of a Custom-house licence.

The laws relative to ship-owning and the privileges of a British-built vessel are of great length; as also those on smuggling. We regret that Mr. Pope did not prefix a brief preamble or notice to the

several divisions of our Custom-house laws, by way of explaining t origin, and the different alterations produced successively by cha of circumstances. Such observations could rest, it is true, only o individual authority: but no hazard could ensue that they woul taken for a part of the official text, and the mixture would formed a pleasing variety. If it be said that the circumstance which we allude are generally known to the merchant, as far as regards his particular line, it may be answered that to merchant other lines they are as little known and as much matters of curi as they are to persons wholly out of business. — In order to pace with the alterations continually occurring in our Custom-h laws, Mr. Pope intends to publish, in a manner corresponding t present work, the acts passed in each respective session. O whole, he appears to us to have performed his task well; and to compiled a volume which, together with a late book of rates, m said to supply a good clue to the labyrinth of our Custom-hous

POLITICS.

Art. 22. *Lettre sur la Noblesse*, &c.; *i. e.* A Letter on Nobilit Emilius undeceived with regard to the Nature, the Rank, the nity, and the Necessity of Nobility in every Country, &c. pp. 124. Dulau and Co., London. 1812.

We are to consider this as a sequel to the larger work on the orig government, intitled *Voix de la Nature*, which we noticed in our Volume, p. 541. Though we ventured then to intimate our appr sions that the world would not exactly coincide with the writer in timate of the importance of his labours, he has despised our negativ culation, and has come again to the bar of the public with unimp confidence. 'Having given,' he says, 'a warning to governm it is time to address the people, and the several orders which con them. — Beginning with the richest, we shall prove to the nobility they and their possessions form one of the leading objects of the tility of that disastrous system which would spare nothing i course.' His first point is to inquire into the origin of nobility, to ascertain whether it be divine or human. Were the latter mitted, this elevated class would, in the author's opinion, hav security for their rank or property: the republicans might s them, "Your ancestors were useful in their day, but we have no of *you*: *they* deserved the title of nobility, but *you* do not; we t fore strip you of it." To counteract so alarming a doctrine, writer maintains that nobility is not of human institution; that it i necessarily the reward of virtue, of bravery, of length of servic even of antiquity of family; that it goes higher than all these, fo derived from the circumstance of being the author or parent of a t 'In the case of a nation, the author or parent is,' says this politician, legitimate sovereign, as has been manifested in the *Voix de la Na* and I now undertake to shew that the ancestor of a clan or branc a nation is, in like manner, the lawful governor of this smaller munity. "In primitive ages," says Montesquieu, "the chil remained in the father's house, and established themselves there.

H

Hence the general exercise of paternal authority; hence an origin of power not amenable to the jurisdiction of the present day.'

Such is the main feature in this writer's reasoning, on which he dwells with as much exultation as if he had himself a title and a landed inheritance to defend. The collateral topics into which he diverges are, the origin of the estates and of the seignorial rights of the nobility, the causes of their decline, and the remedy still remaining for it, in spite of the fury of revolutionists against them. To these are added, notes on the minor topics of 'etiquette,' 'representation of authority,' 'false liberty,' and 'false bravery;' and this odd assemblage is terminated by a somewhat more intelligible title, the 'false point of honour.' — As in the former work, the reader has no cause to complain of the want of a table of contents, since we find an index-line to every page of the treatise; and in this reference, together with its clear arrangement, consists its chief merit in our eyes. Anxiously as the author has laboured to make converts, we are not so fortunate as to rank in the number. His reasoning, we believe, may be understood without difficulty: but we neither coincide in its principles nor comprehend its utility. The rights of the *noblesse*, about which he seems so sollicitous, appear to us in no danger: their foundation is tolerably solid; and the current of revolution seems no longer directed against them. Under this impression, we cannot help regretting that the industry and knowlege of history, which are discovered by this writer, have not been applied to a different purpose.

Art. 23. *The Church in Danger. A serious Letter to the Right Hon. Spencer Perceval*, First Lord of the Treasury, &c., earnestly recommended to the Perusal of all the Members of both Houses of Parliament, and of every true Friend of the Constitution in Church and State. By a true Friend to the Church. 8vo. pp. 38. 1s. 6d. Gale and Curtis.

This *serious* letter is a downright *hoax*, or an ironical *quizzing* of the whole party of religious intolerants. After a string of infallible recipes for securing the Church from all present and future danger, in the style of Swift's advice to servants, the author throws off his ironical grins, and seriously offers his opinion that the firmest basis of security for the Established Church is *a kind and liberal policy, a Christian and unlimited toleration.*

RELIGIOUS.

Art. 24. *Lectures on the Pastoral Character;* by the late George Campbell, D.D. F.R.S. Edinburgh, and Principal of Marischal College, Aberdeen. Edited by James Fraser, D.D. Minister of Drumoak Aberdeenshire. 8vo. pp. 258. 7s. Boards. Black, Parry, and Co.

The importance of character in the clerical profession is universally felt and acknowleged; and precepts are urged to little effect when they are contradicted by the example of the professed spiritual guide, though "examples draw when precepts fail." Under this impression, the late Dr. Campbell was amiably sollicitous of completely preparing his divinity-students for the important situations which they

were destined to occupy; and, in addition to those lectures o Theology, Sacred Criticism, Ecclesiastical History, and Pulpit-Elo quence, which are usually given to young men of this class, he sub joined some useful hints and directions respecting the pastoral cha racter. In these prelections, we discover much knowlege of th world, and of the human heart; and though the lecturer has pre pared them more especially for the meridian of the northern rel gious Establishment of our island, they may be read with profit b divines of all communions. Dr. Fraser, therefore, is to be commende for having taken care that so useful a portion of the late Dr. C. labours should not be kept from the public.

The exhortations are divided into nine lectures; in which, aft some pertinent observations on the influence of example, especiall in persons who take the lead in the church, Dr. C. adverts to thos vices which are peculiarly reproachful in the ministerial characte such as *intemperance*, *impiety*, and *levity* of behaviour: he next pro ceeds to urge the importance of *outward decorum*, in things natu rally indifferent. The virtues which he enumerates, as especially re quisite for the pastor, are *meekness* and *humility*, *fortitude* and *tem perance*. By *meekness* and *humility*, he understands a superiorit over the irascible affections, anger, pride, and impatience; by *fort tude*, a firmness of mind in the discharge of duty, which makes man superior alike to the fear of danger and to the desire of favour and by *temperance*, a dominion over the concupiscible affections, over bodily appetite and the desire of wealth. Under the head *vices*, or *evils*, to which a minister is exposed by the very nature his profession, the lecturer takes notice of Mr. Hume's delineatio of the spirit of the pastoral office; which, though a caricature, fu nishes a very useful hint to all who have undertaken the discharge sacred duties. The temptation to hypocrisy is admitted; and Dr. C very properly recommends to the clergy a sollicitude to correct th tendency, by endeavouring, above all things, to be what they woul seem to be, upright and unblameable. 'Whatever flattering thing may be said to those of other professions, in favour of a dissolu life, and however indulgent the world are to their vices and follie the Christian pastor, depend on it, can entertain no reasonable hop either of peace in himself, or of respect from men, (not to mentio the favour of Heaven,) but in the path of virtue and religion.'* Th lecturer honestly cautions bad men from undertaking the sacred m nistry. 'Be wise,' says he, 'in time, and have nothing to do with business to which your disposition is so ill adapted.'—Aware of th seducing influence of an excessive desire of *popular applause*, he very energetic on this subject: 'I look (he observes) upon this roc of "popularity" as one of those on which persons of our professio are more in danger of suffering shipwreck than perhaps on any oth whatsoever.' To enable his hearers to distinguish between that la dable desire of pleasing which must exist in the breast of every past

* The recipe against hypocrisy is very simple, and, if duly a plied, cannot fail of producing the genuine effect: 'Be good a pious, and then to appear good and pious will follow of course.'

who wishes to benefit his flock by his addresses, and that lust of popular applause which seems to inflame the bosoms of some preachers, the discriminating characters of each are exhibited, and the rule of the Apostle is quoted for the purpose of clearly illustrating the difference: "Let every one of us please his neighbour for his good to edification."

In the concluding lectures, Dr. C. reprobates the practice of those whom he terms Pulpit-controvertists, and urges his brethren of the Scotish communion to resist all temptations to sloth, by regular habits of study and composition. On those preachers who endeavour to exalt themselves as saints of the first magnitude, by blackening all other teachers, he inflicts deserved censure; and the observations which follow ought not to be overlooked: 'Nothing can excuse controversy in the pulpit but necessity; but to say the truth, where this polemic itch prevails it will wait no necessity. — As for you, teach your people the truth, to the best of your knowlege; enforce on them their duty, to the utmost of your power; urge all the motives which the Gospel and right reason will supply you with; but give no evil surmising with regard to others.' This is noble advice, and all ministers who are not ignoble will adopt it. Though, as Dr. C. observes, the clergy of the northern church 'have neither sinecures nor pluralities, nor those fat benefices which can liberally support, with the title of rector, a lazy drone, who minds no other business but to eat and sleep, and can afford an overplus, to serve as a pittance to a drudge, called a curate, for doing all the work;' yet he considers the Scotish clergy as running the risk of being lazy, and therefore puts them on their guard against this propensity, judiciously exhorting young men in the ministry to a due appreciation of the value of time. 'About the age of twenty, every man seems to fancy that his stock of time is inexhaustible, and that he is in no danger of a criminal prodigality; there cannot, however, be a more egregious or dangerous mistake; for not only hereby is much time irrecoverably lost, but habits of remissness and inactivity are contracted which are not easily overcome.'

This sketch of the substance of these lectures will shew how much they merit the perusal of our young clergy. We are sorry not to be able to furnish a longer account: but we trust that we have said enough to forward the sale of this practical work.

Art. 25. *The Second Exodus;* or, Reflections on the Prophecies of the last Times, fulfilled by late Events, and now fulfilling, by the Scourge of Popery, in Preparation for the ending of the Indignation, and the Conversion and Restoration, of Israel. By the Rev. W. Ettrick, M.A., &c. 8vo. 2 Vols. pp. 1034. Boards. Seeley.

To the expounders of dark prophecies, the words of Cicero may be applied with the strictest propriety, "*Opinionum commenta delet dies.*" Time, as it proceeds, obliterates the bold conjectures of former commentators, but it does not prevent others from attempting, with equal boldness, to obtrude their surmises. Presuming on superior discernment or illumination, men have started up in succession, for the purpose of shewing that the interesting occurrences of their

own

own times were the precise events at which Ezekiel, Daniel, or St John pointed: but all cannot be right; though it is not impossibl that all may be wrong. We have more than once protested against the audacity of wild conjecture in this perilous department, and w wish that we could restrain writers from the structure of baseles hypotheses, with the view of interpreting matters which are place beyond the reach of human understanding. — Mr. Ettrick is certainl a well-meaning man, and publishes with no mercenary intention: bu we cannot applaud his judgment. He can appreciate the wild-goos chase of former commentators, yet he is not aware that his own spe culations may prove to be as completely visionary as those of hi predecessors.

'The memorable events of the *last twenty years* (says he) hav opened quite a new prospect into the regions of prophecy, wher before all was wrapped in silence, and impenetrable clouds and dark ness. Newton, and *the troop of commentators* in his company, hav passed through a wide and (at that time) barren tract of thi country, *in a full trot;* as not having found any objects of sufficien distinctness in the thick mist, (then circumfused around *the judgmen of the great whore,*) to which the expository telescope could be lifte up with any tolerable clearness of vision. But since that time th haze has begun to break, and many of the nearer objects have bee defined, and the rude masses of shade have been opened out into thei various forms and respective colours: and even the distant points i the prospect are falling, one after another, within the reach of th powers of the instrument.'

Here the metaphor is well sustained; and, as far as style is con cerned, the passage may be said to be pretty: but we are not in duced by it, nor by any thing that follows it, to believe that Mr. E. has found 'the expository telescope.' No good reason is adduced for concluding that the apocalyptic visions apply any more to 'th last twenty years' than to the twenty that preceded them; and a to both the Newtons, (the philosopher and the bishop,) they have not *trotted* nor *cantered* over the prophetic ground with less good fortune than Mr. E. Surely the troop of succeeding commentators, who have curvetted in vain, should have taught this writer a timidity which he has not felt. Never, we believe, was more labour bestowed with less success than in the present instance; and we must excuse our selves from regularly following Mr. E. through the several section of his presumptuous and desultory work. It will be sufficient to state that he pronounces the second Exodus, or return of the Israelites from their last captivity in the mystical Egypt, to be not far distant; that their re-possession of Palestine will be preceded by their conversion to Christianity; that the *Breaker* (Micah ii. 13.) will remove all obstacles by the destruction of popery, (the great impediment to the conversion of the Jews,) and by the overthrow of the Turkish em pire; while a tremendous volcano is to burst forth immediately under the city of Rome, (the seat of the mystic whore of Babylon,) and ingulph it in fire. Mr. E. is confident in the speedy accomplishment of these great events: but his violence against the Catholics does not accord with his interpretations of prophecy; since, if the Popish system

system and the Popish power are soon to be overturned, by the providence of God, why needs he have any fears on the score of Catholic emancipation? His theology and his politics are strangely at variance.

MISCELLANEOUS.

Art. 26. *The Substance of a Conversation with John Bellingham*, the Assassin of the late Right Honourable Spencer Perceval, May 17. 1812, the Day previous to his Execution: together with some general Remarks. By Daniel Wilson, A. M. Minister of St. John's Chapel, Bedford-Row, &c. 8vo. pp. 60. 2s. Hatchard.

The singular conduct of this undaunted assassin, not only immediately after he had committed the atrocious murder of the Prime Minister, but at his trial, and in Newgate, has excited various comments. We are shocked and affected by his calmness and indifference. His mind was certainly in a very unsound state: but the question is, was it brought into this deplorable condition by insanity, or by the gradual progress of iniquity? From an attentive view of the case, (thank God, a very rare one,) we are inclined to believe that this individual laboured under a kind of derangement; since, had he been worked up to the infernal deed merely by those vile passions and sinful courses which bring wretches to an untimely end, he would have felt that dejection and remorse which usually betray themselves when the solemn sentence of the law is about to be executed on them. Bellingham's indifference and fortitude, in the immediate view of an ignominious death, are evidences of the morbid state of his mind. — Mr. Wilson, however, sees the matter in a different light; and his mode of contemplating it, if not philosophically correct, may certainly be more instructive. The substance of his conversation with the assassin is very short and unsatisfactory; merely amounting to this, that the pious divine, after all his efforts to make the murderer repent of the horrid deed for which he was about to suffer, induced him to say, 'in a calm and unfeeling tone,' that he "confessed his sins, and trusted to the mercy of God." When, indeed, he was told that Mrs. Perceval had prayed for the murderer of her husband, he confessed that "her conduct was more like a Christian's than his own;" and though he made this admission with an unaltered countenance, it surely cannot be regarded, as Mr. Wilson would have us think, as 'in itself a proof of a deplorable impenitence:' it is rather one of the traits of his singular insanity. We may also adduce, as an evidence of the same point, his levity in replying to Mr. Wilson's representation of David's repentance of the dreadful crimes of adultery and murder: "Christ sprung," says he, "from that issue." To reason with a man in such a state of mind was vain. In the latter part of this pamphlet, considering Bellingham as a most dreadful instance of depravity and hardness of heart, Mr. W. enlarges, in a sort of sermon, on the causes which lead to this hardness, and urges the necessity both of a religious education and of cherishing through life those good principles and impressions which the well instructed receive in their early years.

This pamphlet, though it has reached a second edition, contains a passage in the second page which manifests a strange slip of Mr. W.'s pen;

pen: 'I determined to begin with the *great fundamental truths of the Scriptures*, and to leave the introduction of the *other shocking topic*,' &c. We notice this error that it may be corrected.

Art. 27. *The Hydro-Aëronaut*, or Navigator's Life-Buoy: being an easy and effectual Method of preventing the Loss of Lives by drowning, in Cases of Ship-wreck and others. By Thomas Cleghorn, Inventor of the Ice Life-boat. 12mo. 5s. Boards. Richardson.

We are scarcely competent judges of the subject of this work, and must therefore express our ideas respecting it with much diffidence. As far, however, as we are capable of forming an opinion of it, we think that it is ingenious, and deserving of attention. The object is highly important, not less than that of saving the lives of our seamen; and the means by which it is proposed to be accomplished are sufficiently simple. The human body is known to be nearly of the same specific gravity with water; so that only a small addition of any substance that is lighter than water enables it to float on the surface. To give the body this buoyancy, Mr. Cleghorn proposes that casks of air should be employed; and he proceeds to calculate, with some degree of minuteness, the bulk of air that may be necessary for this purpose. The result is as follows: 'a man who would render himself buoyant in fresh water, if he weighs in common scales 12 stone (of 14lb. each), provides himself with twelve pints of common air confined in one, two, or more air-tight casks or life-buoys. If he weigh 15 or 16 stone, he takes with him 15 or 16 pints of confined air, and so in proportion.' It is stated, as a great recommendation of this scheme, that it requires no additional apparatus; or at least none that is either bulky or expensive. 'No ship is without casks. There is scarcely one which has not a much greater number of casks with water, wine, beer, spirits, &c., than would be requisite, in most cases, to save every human creature on board. This will appear the more strikingly obvious, when we consider that every vessel, on going to sea, has in casks more than two gallons of water, and other liquids, for each person on board.'

It is obvious that some contrivance will be necessary to apply this plan of assistance to the greatest advantage: but for these details we shall refer to the treatise itself, being satisfied with having called the attention of our readers to the principle on which it proceeds.

Art. 28. *Geographical, Commercial, and Political Essays;* including Statistic Details of various Countries. 8vo. pp. 321. 8s. 6d. Boards. Longman and Co.

We have here a complete specimen of a miscellaneous collection. The most incongruous topics,—philosophical reflections—mercantile price-currents—essays on comets and meteors, and the slave-trade—disquisitions on paper-currency—on salted meat—on the immutability of China—on Pliny's Natural History—on Botany Bay—on modern Paris, &c. &c., all enter into the heterogeneous assemblage. The selections, says the editor, were made from a vast collection of manuscripts written by a gentleman who (very wisely, in our opinion,) will not allow his name to be mentioned. He was in the habit of

taking

taking notes of his conversations with travellers, merchants, and ship-owners, with an industry certainly commendable in itself, but to which it would have been well for his readers that he had added the essential qualification of discriminating matter which was worth recording from such as was mere repetition or extravagant rumour. Unluckily, too, the editor has been accustomed, as he informs us, to pursue a line of reading so different from the nature of this book, as to be ill qualified to remedy the faults of the original compiler.

In the present situation of the war, our attention was turned to a promised chapter (p. 157.) on Poland; and here we found a fair specimen of the singular authorities from which these papers have been taken, the information respecting Poland proceeding from no other than the late 'Mr. Brookes, the proprietor of wild beasts at Exeter Change.' This gentleman, it seems, led a wandering life during three years in the forests of Poland, attended by a body of natives, and supporting himself and his party chiefly by the chace. His object was neither the study of manners nor the collection of statistical materials,—it was, by the happy division of labour subsisting among us, the capture of dog-foxes, wolf-dogs, aur-oxen, and hermaphrodite bulls, with the meritorious view of exhibiting these whims of nature to his astonished countrymen in London. His suite was formed of 100 Polanders, with troops of dogs; and their wages consisted in an allowance of brandy and tobacco. High-roads and turnpikes are unknown in this region; and the tracks which form the only channel of conveyance are repaired with rude, uneven, trunks of trees. The peasants live in hovels without a chimney; their pigs, and even their horses, sleeping in the same apartment; and the bread is so coarse that straws may be drawn out from it when it is baked. No wonder that, in such a country, Mr. Brookes should have found travelling "inconceivably irksome," and that he should set down the natives as "incredibly poor."

The remarks on the interior of Russia are more deserving of attention, being taken from the journal of two ship-owners, who were detained, in the time of Paul, in a village south of Moscow. Their report contains a plain notice of circumstances open to ocular observation, and might have been read with satisfaction had it been interspersed with suitable reflections. Its contents are ill calculated, we must confess, to excite enthusiasm in the cause of these sons of the North, and Dr. Clarke's accusations are here reiterated with formidable proofs. A confirmed indolence, to be roused by nothing but terror or the danger of starvation; a general habit of theft; a total neglect of cleanliness, either in person or dwelling; and, which is worse than all, dissoluteness of morals; are put coolly and clearly on record by these dispassionate narrators. The skill of the Russians in imitation is surprising: but it embraces rather the curious than the complicated operations of machinery. The bread consumed by the peasantry is brown, and has a still larger proportion of straws than that of their Polish neighbours. The village-priests are lamentable transgressors in the sin of intoxication, and seem to suffer no check of conscience on the detection of the offence. All that has been said of the degrading treatment of the women is corroborated by this account; and yet,

after all, the Russians, high and low, agree in considering their own country as the most polished in the world. — So far goes the testimony of the ship-masters, and so far is the reader safe in giving credit to the communications of plain journalists: but a very different course is necessary with regard to some high-sounding assertions which follow from another authority. The Petersburgh guards, it is said (p. 154.) were *almost all* killed or wounded in the campaign of 1807. Now this statement is totally at variance with Sir Robert Wilson's report of their striking appearance, (see Rev. for July,) at the end of the war, in the town of Tilsit. 'To call out 650,000 men to join the army was,' says the compiler, (p. 154.) 'a wise and daring measure,' just as if it had been *perfectly practicable* to raise and support so large a body. So round are his numbers in military calculation, that he says not fewer than '100,000 soldiers were detained in St. Petersburg in the midst of the last Polish war.' 'Were Russia,' he adds, 'to manufacture all the articles of her consumption, she would become incredibly rich'! The late law enabling the nobility to sell their estates, and the trading or financial rank to purchase, is, in the opinion of this writer, a very foolish enactment!

It would be tedious to multiply examples of incongruity and absurdity in this motley compilation. On reading the reflections suggested by Dr. Gillies's History of the World, we find no reference to the subjects treated by that author, but a doleful effusion on the melancholy consequences that would ensue 'were the British islands invaded and *dispeopled* by the tyrant of France.' Among other notable reflections, it is said that the 'North-West and the Hudson's Bay Companies would die away like the meteors of an hour;' 'not a village, not the wreck of a vessel would, in two centuries, attest the adventurous journeys of the wealthy merchants, and the *artful* manufacturers of Scotland.'—In a different passage, we have Denmark mentioned as a kingdom, in which 'the proud citizen dines on oil and bread, yet wears ruffles at his hands! It is difficult to determine which of these four nations is the happiest; the Russian in his indolence and brutishness; or the Pole in his ignorance and licentiousness; or the Prussian by his riches and taxation; or the Dane with his infatuated insolence, and his science.' Here, we think, it is time to pause; since enough, and probably more than enough, has been said to shew that this anonymous transcriber and his anonymous editor should exercise greater caution and selection in their future gatherings.

SINGLE SERMONS.

Art. 29. *The Claims of the British and Foreign Bible-Society to the Support of the British Public:* preached at St. James's Church, Bath, March 15, 1812. By the Rev. Richard Warner. 8vo. 2s. Wilkie and Co.

If Christianity be intended for an universal religion, (and it has all the characters which an universal religion ought to possess,) every true believer should rejoice in any plan that has a tendency to diffuse among *all flesh* a knowlege of *the salvation of God.* (Text, Luke ii. 6.) Mr. Warner's conduct is in unison with such a faith. His zeal for his church, however strong, is subordinate to his charity

for the world; and, in conformity with his well-known liberality, he urges the high duty of an union *among all denominations and descriptions of Christians*, for the purpose of diffusing among the ignorant at home and abroad the *pure and unincumbered word of God.* As far as it could have been effected in a short discourse, Mr. W. has well stated the claims of the Bible-Society to the support of the public, and has answered the objections which have been ungraciously urged against this pure effort of benevolence. He scouts the narrow principles of those persons who think that Churchmen ought not to coalesce with Dissenters, even in the distribution of the very book which contains the foundation of their common faith; and he regards the other objection which has been made to the Society, viz. that it sends forth the Bible without a companion, as 'leading to this tremendous and blasphemous conclusion, that the *Bible* is a worthless, if not a pernicious volume, and therefore *cannot be the word of God.*' They who object to the distribution of the Bible *without note or comment* pay a very bad compliment to the sacred Scriptures in the first instance, and to their own church or creed in the second. Mr. W. is not in the least afraid that the beauty and sublimity of the Liturgy will be abandoned for 'the *naked* services (a nakedness, indeed, "which needeth not to be ashamed,") of the Dissenters.'

Art. 30. *The Spiritual Danger of an Opposition to the British and Foreign Bible Society:* preached at St. James's Church, Bath, April 19 and 26, 1812. By the Rev. Richard Warner, Curate of St. James's Parish. 8vo. 2s. Wilkie and Co.

Ashamed of the opposition made by some of the clergy to the Bible-Society, Mr. Warner farther endeavours to rescue the National Church from the opprobrium in which this hostility is likely to involve it, by exposing the mistaken principles and assumptions on which it appears to be conducted. Having taken for his text Gamaliel's prudent advice to the Jewish Sanhedrim, who were prepared to oppose the preaching of the Gospel by the Apostles, he compares the two cases, and concludes that the adversaries of the Bible-Society ought, like the Sanhedrim, to beware lest *they fight against God.*

Art. 31. *The Design of God in blessing us:* preached at Salter's Hall, Feb. 23, 1812, for the Benefit of the Royal Lancasterian Institution: with an Appendix, containing Notes and Illustrations from various Writers. By John Styles. 8vo. pp. 114. 2s. 6d. Gale and Curtis. 1812.

Some good sentiments, displayed with great energy of language, recommend this discourse: but it commences with a remark which, though it possibly may be metaphysically correct, seems to annihilate the obligations to piety. 'God,' says Mr. Styles, 'is the only being who lives for himself.' In an abstract contemplation of the Divine Essence, this may be the case: but, in the relation in which we stand to him as his creatures and beneficiaries, how can we consider the Deity as living for himself, when his nature is love, and when he is diffusing his blessings over the whole creation? Is not the blessedness of blessing felt by the Almighty Parent, and is it not one of the noblest features of benevolence that we thus obtain a kind of resemblance to the source of all good? As preliminary matter to his

his grand object, the preacher considers in what respects man has the power to bless; and how this power must be associated, in order to render it a real blessing to his fellow-creatures. Under these heads, he has a fair opportunity of specifying as well the qualities which obstruct as those which promote the exercise of the kind affections; among the former, he very properly classes sectarian bigotry: but we think that, with all his declamation against this monster, he has himself exhibited an instance of unwarrantable bigotry to his own sect, when he would stigmatize all that portion of literature and science, which does not favour his own creed, as being employed, in various ways, 'with a subordinate intention of bringing into discredit *the peculiar and characteristic principles of the gospel.*' We all know what this phrase means; and when the sun-beams of science have expanded this preacher's soul, he will be sorry that reflections so illiberal and unfounded have ever proceeded from his pen. Shall one particular sect arrogate to itself the right of stating what are 'the peculiar and characteristic principles of the gospel,' and reprobate all those writers as Deists in disguise who do not adopt its creed? Criticism may explore and yet believe: but its faith may not *square* with notions which the uninvestigating vulgar may have received as peculiar to and characteristic of the religion of Jesus.—We applaud the zeal and ability with which Mr. S. pleads in favour of the Lancasterian Institution, and eulogizes Mr. Lancaster; while we observe of the subjoined notes and illustrations that they put the reader in possession of the substance of that singular controversy, which this comprehensive system of education and the still more liberal establishment of the Bible-Society have excited. As a Dissenter, Mr. S. feels himself hurt by the insinuations of those few of the clergy, (we trust that they are few,) who have expressed themselves hostile to an union with Dissenters for the promotion of the gospel; and he does not spare the High-Church party.

CORRESPONDENCE.

We know nothing of the papers to which *Veridicus* refers, nor have we the means of consulting them. If they were transmitted to us, we would peruse them, and make any note of addition to our former remarks which might appear to us to be necessary.

'*A Constant Reader*' will accept our thanks, but permit us to decline his offer.

The letter from *Totness* does not supply the title of the writer's work, nor state where it may be procured.

☞ The Readers of the M. R. are requested to take notice that the APPENDIX to Vol. LXVIII. of the New Series is published with this Number, and contains (as usual) a number of articles in Foreign Literature, and the *General Title, Index*, &c. for the Volume.

THE
MONTHLY REVIEW,
For OCTOBER, 1812.

ART. I. *Dr.* Clarke's *Travels, Part II., Section* 1.
[*Article concluded from p.* 20.]

WE now direct our attention to that part of this interesting volume which relates to *Ægypt, and the Campaign of* 1801.—From the bay of Macri, the vessel conveying Dr. Clarke sailed with a favourable breeze to Aboukir. In its progress, a remarkable example occurred of the distance to which sound may be carried over level ground and a calm sea; the master of the ship having called the attention of his passengers to a low gentle murmur on the water, continuing at intervals during the whole day, and proceeding, as they afterward ascertained, from the fire of our artillery on the fort of Rahmanie, distant above one hundred miles. On the 17th April 1801, the voyagers reached the bay of Aboukir, and were much gratified with the magnificent sight of the fleet of men of war, troop-ships, transports, and merchantmen, which were then lying at anchor. It was an inexpressible gratification to find themselves again in the society of their countrymen, after a long absence from home, and a wearisome intercourse with ignorant foreigners. Here they were aided by books, and by the suggestions of men who were competent to give information respecting the countries which they were yet to explore: but this satisfaction was much damped by the distressed condition of several of their friends and school-fellows, who had been wounded in the late engagements: from whom, and others who had been present in the three memorable actions of the 8th, 13th, and 21st March, Dr. C. learned several interesting particulars which he has inserted in his book. The great source of our disappointment and loss was the want of previous information; a want of which our veteran commander is said to have complained in his dying hours. One cause of this deficiency is to be found in the unfortunate death of Major M'Kerras of the engineers; who, having been sent on before to take a survey of the coast, lost his life at the time when he had succeeded in making the

most useful observations. The ignorance of the Turks another vexatious circumstance: but the chief cause of plexity on this and various occasions was the inexperience of staff officers, who were then only beginning to acquire a kn lege of their duty.

In describing the landing of our troops on the 8th Ma Dr. C. does justice to the admirable order and steadiness which our line of boats advanced in the face of a drea shower of balls, shells, and grape-shot. The General given directions that not a musket should be loaded until troops formed on the beach; and, accordingly, not a sol quitted his seat, nor a sailor his oar, till, after having pu for three long miles against the wind, and suffered a los nearly 300 men by the enemy's fire, they reached the sh The prows of the whole line touching ground at the s time, the soldiers leaped into the water, and formed in orde soon as they gained the dry sand. Two hundred French ho men, expecting that our men would land detached and uns ported, actually made a charge into the water, but soon bec the victims of their audacity. Another body, much n numerous, galloped down on the 42d regiment, while tangled in loose sand, but were received at the point of bayonet, and driven back with precipitation by the advanc the rest of our line. This served as a signal for our troop rush up the hill on which the French infantry was posted; neither the enemy's fire nor the steepness of ascent, nor impeding looseness of the sand under their feet, could their progress. They rushed forwards with irresistible f stormed the height, and, full of rage from the cannonade wh had made such havock in the boats, gave no quarter to flying enemy.—The length of time subsequently occupie landing our stores, and the superiority of the French in cav encouraged the enemy, though inferior in number, to occu position a few miles only from Aboukir. In this encampm our army attacked them on the 13th, and dislodged them, tho with considerable loss on our part. Had Sir R. Abercron possessed information on which he could have relied, it is unlikely that he would have followed up his offensive operat on that day by the immediate investment of Alexandria: bu doubt as he was, he preferred the cautious alternative of enca ing in a strong position. A few days afterward, about the 1 March, General Menou arrived from Cairo; and the Fre being now reinforced, he determined to attack our troops, "to tumble them into the sea."

Sir Ralph Abercrombie, calculating on this attack, had rected, during the two succeeding nights, that our sold

should sleep on their arms, and should be prepared for action an hour before day-break. All this precaution was necessary; for on the morning of the 21st March the approach of the enemy was made in silence and darkness. Our centinels perceived their videttes draw nearer and nearer to ours, but without suspecting the cause, till a long dark line began to catch the eye. They had scarcely given the alarm when the French commenced their fire on the left, which was meant to draw off our attention from the real object of attack. Our General, however, was not to be thus deceived. Aware of the importance of the commanding ground on our right, he had stationed a strong body there, and now sent orders to defend it to the last extremity. It was not long before the keenness of the fire on the right shewed the necessity of these measures. As it was still dark, the adverse lines discerned each other no otherwise than by the flashes in firing: but, when dawn appeared, it was found that a part of the French had penetrated behind the advance of our right wing; and that their cavalry, in which they were greatly superior, was in the rear of our infantry. At this critical moment, the 28th regiment faced about its rear ranks, and sustained with unshaken firmness an attack in front and rear. The 42d regiment, appointed to flank the position guarded by the 28th, came up to their assistance, but received such a furious charge from the enemy's cavalry as to break the line of the 42d, and to lead to an intermingled combat of horse and foot. The French, accustomed to consider the flight or slaughter of infantry as a certain consequence of a disordered line, anticipated the overthrow of the 42d, and were not apprized of the peculiar habits of their opponents. It is in close action and in individual combat that the Highlanders reap the full advantage of their characteristic strength and alertness. Those who know the exploits which they performed in former ages, under such leaders as the Marquis of Montrose or Lord Dundee, are aware that, when an enemy's infantry allows them to grapple with their broad swords, the fate of the day is decided. Here, however, the contest was unequal; they were opposed to cavalry, and the musket and bayonet are not their national weapons. The struggle accordingly was obstinate and sanguinary: but their desperate activity was at last successful; and the horsemen who survived the rude encounter sought safety in flight. — Meantime, three bodies of the enemy had forced their way behind the scene of this conflict, and had reached a square area formed by an extensive ruin. Here they were received with firmness by the 58th and 23d regiments; and a part of the 42d, marching back, attacked them from behind. The sight now became dreadful. The rage of the com-

batants impelled them to close action, and the bayonet an even the butt-end of the musket were the weapons employed The French, finding their retreat cut off, fought with fury but were killed in numbers, at first in their ranks, and afterwar transfixed against the walls of the building. By this time, the re pulse of the enemy along the rest of the line, where the battl had been more regular and less desperate, gave the victory t the English. The loss of the French was computed at 4,00 killed and wounded; of whom 700 were calculated to hav fallen within the walls of the ruin. In that spot, the bodie lay so thick that, instead of allotting to them a regular inter ment, heaps of sand were thrown over them; and the trace of blood along the walls continued for months afterward t form a melancholy record of the slaughter.

Having quitted Ægypt before the termination of the cam paign, the author gives only a brief sketch of Lord Hutchin son's operations after the death of Sir R. Abercrombie. The were dictated by an adherence to the intentions of his lamented commander, and by a judicious consideration of the inade quacy of our force to bold undertakings. His first object wa to cut off the communication between the garrison of Alex andria and the rest of Ægypt, with which view he inundated the surrounding country. Leaving a force in the lines before Alexandria, his farther plan was to attack, one by one, th stations in the interior which were occupied by the dispersed troops of the enemy. This course of proceeding enabled hi to turn to account the time that must necessarily elapse befor the arrival of reinforcements from England; and his determina tion being once taken, he adhered to it amid the taunts of th foe and the murmurs of his own soldiers, who were impatien for more rapid measures. Accordingly, one post of the enem surrendered after the other; affording an example of succes obtained by a concurrence, somewhat rare in history, of goo generalship on our part and bad on that of the French. As t our ministers, it is apparent that they completely under-rate the enemy's strength; and that, in order to redeem their mis management, nothing would have sufficed but extraordinar intrepidity on the part of our troops.

From the camp before Alexandria, the travellers made a expedition to Rosetta. The intervening desert afforded ther an example of the phænomenon called by the French *mirag* On an exclamation from their Arab attendants that "Raschi was in sight," they perceived domes and turrets apparently o the opposite side of an extended lake, on the bosom of whic was reflected a beautiful assemblage of buildings, minarets, an groves of trees. Yet in fact no water lay between them an

these conspicuous objects; for, as soon as the face of the desert is warmed by the sun, it assumes at the distance of a league the look of a general inundation, the remote towns and villages appearing to be situated in the water. This illusion continues till the cool of the evening. — On climbing a hill of sand near Rosetta, the travellers were unexpectedly greeted with a delightful view of the Nile; and the beautiful boats which are peculiar to it, with their large wide-spreading sails, were passing up and down the river. Near them were the spacious groves of Rosetta; farther up, at the distance of five miles, the English camp; and the prospect was closed by the fortress of Rahmanie. Unable to quit the spot, Dr. C. and his friends remained for some time in silent contemplation. Afterward, walking down from the hill, they proceeded along the banks of the Nile, through the richest gardens, beneath the shade of sycamore and fig-trees. All authors are agreed with regard to the beauty of the scenery of Rosetta, but complain of the dullness of the town; a remark by no means applicable at the time of Dr. C.'s visit, the vicinity of the English camp having attracted an unusual concourse of people.

Acre, and Djezzar Pacha. — Having passed two months in Rosetta, and in a visit to Cyprus, the travellers embraced an opportunity of proceeding to St. John d'Acre in the Romulus frigate; prompted partly by a wish to see the ruler of Acre, the Herod of his day, and more by an expectation of accomplishing a journey to Jerusalem. Djezzar Pacha had been described above twenty years before by the Baron de Tott as a sanguinary tyrant; and our travellers found him bidding defiance, as usual, to the power of the Turkish government, though affecting to venerate the personal authority of the Sultan. They were conducted to an inner apartment of his castle, through an assemblage of persons mutilated in the nose, the ear, or the eye, in different ebullitions of their master's rage. The Pacha was seated on a mat, in a little chamber which was destitute of all furniture and utensils except an earthen-ware vessel for cooling the water which he occasionally drank; and he was employed in drawing on the floor, for one of his engineers, a plan of some works which he was then constructing. His age was considerably above sixty, but his form was athletic, and his long white beard entirely covered his breast. He wore a white turban, and was dressed in the common Arab style, with a white camlet over a cotton cassock. As his badge of office, he carried in his girdle a poignard, set with diamonds. His interpreter kneeling by his side, the conversation began by a request from the Pacha that English captains entering in future the bay of Acre would fire only one gun as a salute:

"" There can be no good reason," said he, "for such a waste of gun-powder, in ceremony between friends. Besides, I am too old to be pleased with ceremony; among forty-three Pachas of three tails, now living in Turkey, I am the senior. My occupations are, consequently, as you may see, very important," taking out a pair of scissars, and beginning to cut figures in paper, which was his constant employment when strangers were present; these he afterwards stuck upon the wainscot. "I shall send each of you away," said he, "with good proof of old Djezzar's ingenuity. There," addressing himself to Captain Culverhouse of the Romulus, and offering a paper-cannon, "there is a symbol of your profession." — As often as we endeavoured to introduce the business of our visit, he affected to be absorbed in these trifling conceits, or turned the conversation by allegorical sayings, to whose moral we could find no possible clue. His whole discourse was in parables, proverbs, truisms, and oriental apologues. — There was evidently much cunning and deep policy in his pretended frivolity. Apparently occupied in regulating the shape of a watch-paper with his scissars, he was all the while deeply attentive to our words, and even to our looks, anxious to discover whether there was any urgency in the nature of our visit. — At last we stated the cause of it, and requested a supply of cattle, for the use of the British fleet. He agreed to furnish 100 bullocks, but on the sole condition of not being offered payment for them in money; artillery or ammunition being with him a preferable mode of remuneration. He was vain of the bodily vigour which he still retained, frequently boasted of it, and used to bare his arm, in order to exhibit his brawny muscles. Sometimes, in conversation with strangers, he would suddenly leap upright from his seat to shew his activity. — His history, if ever it be written, will have all the air of a romance. His real name is Achmed. He was a native of Bosnia, and speaks the Sclavonian language better than any other. It is impossible to give here even a detail of his numerous adventures. At an early period of life, he sold himself to a slave merchant in Constantinople; and being purchased by Ali Bey, in Ægypt, he rose from the humble situation of a Mameluke slave, to the post of governor of Cairo. In this situation he distinguished himself by the most rigorous execution of justice, and realized the stories related of Oriental Caliphs, by mingling, in disguise, with the inhabitants of the city, and thus making himself master of all that was said concerning himself, or transacted by his officers. The interior of his mysterious palace, inhabited by his women, is accessible only by himself. Every evening he retired to this place through three massive doors, every one of which he closed and barred with his own hands. To have knocked at the outer door after he retired, or even to enter the Seraglio, was an offence that would have been punished with death. No person in Acre knew the number of his women, but from the circumstance of a certain number of covers being daily placed in a kind of wheel or turning cylinder, so contrived as to convey dishes to the interior, without any possibility of observing the person who received them. He had, from time to time, received presents of female slaves; these had been sent into his *Charem*, but, afterwards, whether they were alive or dead, no one knew except

cept himself. They entered never to go out again; and, thus immured, they were cut off from all knowledge of the world, except what he thought proper to communicate. If any of them were ill, he brought a physician to a hole in the wall of the *Charem*, through which the sick person was allowed to thrust her arm; the Pacha himself holding the hand of the physician, during the time her pulse was examined.'

Acre, like other towns in the Levant, is worth contemplating only on the outside. Its interior exactly resembles Constantinople, being composed of narrow lanes with wretched shops, and filled with as wretched inhabitants. Its ruins bear the marks of Gothic, or rather Saracenic architecture, but are so intermingled with other buildings as to be very difficult of description. Its antient name was Akn; and the high-sounding appellation of Ptolemais seems never to have obtained general currency in the country.

Journey to Jerusalem. — Dr. Clarke, Mr. Cripps, and some naval gentlemen, set out from Acre in a party of twenty-three persons; of whom the half were Arab guards. This number was soon augmented by pilgrims on the road, who were desirous of an escort to the Holy City. The mode of travelling was on horseback, but they experienced great inconvenience from the heat, the season being the month of July, and the thermometer in the shade frequently above 90. They were not free, also, from alarm on the score of the plague, although they learned to be less apprehensive of infection in consequence of hearing many instances of persons attending the diseased with impunity. The force of imagination is supposed to have great influence with regard to this disorder; apprehensive persons being most liable to its attack, while predestinarians, like the Turks, are said often to pass unhurt in the midst of contagion. In the French army, the physicians considered it as a malignant and therefore dangerous fever, but, with proper precaution, as by no means fatal. Certain it is that the loss of lives by the plague is not so great as we are apt to think. The rumour prevalent around Asiatic towns of the number carried off is always exaggerated; and the Gazettes of Europe publish reports of whole cities being depopulated, when it might be more correct to say that the inhabitants had retired from their crowded streets to pass the season of danger in tents. Were the traveller in Asia to halt or turn back on every rumour of the plague, he would soon find his journey impracticable. — The Christians, or rather those who call themselves Christians, in the Holy Land, are divided into various sects. It is said that no Lutherans are among them: but, be that as it may, the most absurd superstitions are here practised under the name of Christianity. At Nazareth,

where the travelling party first arrived, the monks sho building supported by two stone pillars, one of which is se stand without a base; as if it were not apparent to a perso observation, that the top is fastened to the roof. The bad e of such artifices, in impairing the general faith of the de but often weak persons who visit the Holy Land, is great be lamented. 'Credulity and scepticism,' says Dr. C., neighbouring extremes: whoever abandons the one, is rea admit the other.'

Nazareth is a small town or village situated on the side barren, rocky elevation, facing the east, and commanding prospect of a long valley. No place throughout Djezzar's ritory had suffered more by his tyrannical exactions.—From windows of their apartment, the travellers saw two wo grinding corn into flour, with a handmill, to make bread, ex in the way mentioned by our Saviour, Matt. xxiv. 41. two women were seated on the ground opposite to each o holding between them two round flat stones. In the midd the upper stone was a cavity for pouring in corn, and, by side of this, an upright wooden handle for moving the s As the operation began, one of the women with her right h pushed this handle to the woman opposite, who sent it ba her companion; thus communicating a circular and quick tion to the upper stone, their left hands being all the w employed in supplying fresh corn, as fast as the bran and fl escaped from the sides of the machine.

Having left Nazareth, the travellers came to Cana of Gal sometimes called Cana Minor, a small village situated gentle eminence in the midst of a valley. About a quart a mile from it is a spring of delicious limpid water, clo the road, and frequented by pilgrims as the fountain which plied the water which was converted by our Saviour's first mi into wine. As they journeyed on, they left the road to as the Mount, the supposed scene of Christ's sermon to his ciples. Here, while meditating on the sacred discourse, cast their eyes around, and enjoyed one of the most interes prospects in the Holy Land. On one side was the Lake as it is called, the Sea of Galilee; reminding them, by its rounding mountains, of the Lake of Geneva. The track betw them and the lake consisted of fertile plains. To the r appeared many summits, towering beyond a series of inter ing mountains, and appearing a part of the great chain of banon. On the highest summit of all, the snow lay, nc patches, but in continued white; a striking spectacle in a mate in which the spectator in the valley is impatient to protection from a burning sun.—In an elevated plain nort

the Lake of Galilee, they discerned the wilderness to which St. John retired; and to the south-west, at the distance of only twelve miles, Mount Tabor was conspicuous by its conical shape and insulated position on the northern side of the wide plain of Esdraelon.

On coming down from the Mount, the journey lay on a descent all the way to the Lake of Galilee. Here the travellers, turning their view towards the northern shore, saw through a bold declivity the situation of Capernaum, on the boundaries of the two tribes of Zabulon and Naphtali. The town of Tiberias stands close to the edge of the lake, and is fortified by walls, but has no artillery. As the party entered the gate, the Turkish guards were playing at chess. The castle is on a rising ground in the north part of the town. This place, like other Turkish towns, makes altogether a wretched figure within, and has no antiquities, except a very old church of an oblong form. The warm baths, distant about a mile from the town, have long been celebrated. In the middle of the Lake, a current is seen to mark the course of the Jordan throughout its extent. The travellers found it extremely pleasant to bathe in the Lake; and, to whatever distance they swam, they were able to discern, through the transparent medium, the shining pebbles at the bottom. — Leaving Tiberias, they made an effort to visit Mount Tabor, but it was abandoned on account of the Arabs, who would have shewn no mercy to travellers escorted by the servants of their bitter enemy, Djezzar Pacha. The top of this mountain was described as a plain of great extent, and well cultivated. The Arabs frequently refusing to pay tribute to Djezzar, the course adopted by that decisive chieftain was to make his troops attack, at a fit opportunity, their herds of cattle, driving them away, and killing the proprietors when they resisted. — The Arabs are, in some degree, favourites with Dr. C., the vices of drunkenness and gaming being unknown among them, and their hospitality to strangers being accompanied with kindness to their slaves and inferiors. His observations are, in course, to be considered with reference to the tribes in the Holy Land. — The next town of consequence at which the travellers arrived was Napolose, the antient Sichem:

'The view of this place much surprised us, as we had not expected to find a city of such magnitude in the road to Jerusalem. It seems to be the metropolis of a very rich and extensive country, abounding with provisions, and all the necessary articles of life, in much greater profusion than the town of Acre. White bread was exposed to sale in the streets, of a quality superior to any that is to be found elsewhere throughout the Levant.' — 'The reader who wishes to know the

the various names possessed by this city, at different periods of its history, must be referred to the learned Reland.' — 'So long ago as the twelfth century, the elegant and perspicuous Phocas, himself visiting the place, and describing the city, speaks of it as "Sichar, the metropolis of the Samaritans, afterwards called *Neapolis*." — According to the ancient Hebrew text of Genesis, and the book of Judges, it should be written Schechem.' — 'The traveller directing his footsteps towards its ancient sepulchres, as everlasting as the rocks wherein they are hewn, is permitted, upon the authority of sacred and indelible record, to contemplate the spot where the remains of Joseph, of Eleazar, and of Joshua, were severally deposited. If any thing connected with the memory of past ages be calculated to awaken local enthusiasm, the land around this city is pre-eminently intitled to consideration. The sacred story of events transacted in the fields of Sichem (Genesis xxxvii.) is remembered from our earliest years with delight; but with the territory before our eyes where those events took place, and in the view of objects existing as they were described above three thousand years ago, the grateful impression kindles into ecstasy. Along the valley we beheld "a company of Ishmaelites coming from Gilead," as in the days of Reuben and Judah, "with their camels bearing spicery, and balm, and myrrh."

'The principal object of veneration, among the inhabitants, is *Jacob's Well*, over which a church was formerly erected. This is situated at a small distance from the town, in the road to Jerusalem, and has been visited by pilgrims of all ages; but particularly since the Christian æra, as the place where our Saviour revealed himself (John, iv.) to the woman of Samaria.'—

'We left Napolose one hour after mid-night, that we might reach Jerusalem the same day.—The road was mountainous, rocky, and full of loose stones: yet the cultivation was every where marvellous, and afforded one of the most striking pictures of human industry which it is possible to behold. The limestone-rocks, and stony valleys of Judæa, were entirely covered with plantations of figs, vines, and olive trees; not a single spot seemed to be neglected. The hills from their bases to their *upmost* summits were entirely covered with gardens. — Among the standing crops, we noticed millet, cotton, linseed, and tobacco; and occasionally small fields of barley. — Instead of the depressed and gloomy looks of Djezzar Pacha's desolated plains, health, hilarity, and peace, were visible in the features of the inhabitants. Under a wise and a beneficial government, the produce of the Holy Land would exceed all calculation. Its perennial harvest; the salubrity of its air; its limpid springs; its rivers, lakes, and matchless plains; its hills and vales; — all these, added to the serenity of its climate, prove this land to be indeed "a field which the Lord hath blessed." —The first part of our journey led through the valley lying between the two mountains, Ebal and Gerizim. We passed the Sepulchre of Joseph, and the Well of Jacob, where the valley of Sichem opens into a fruitful plain, watered by a stream which rises near the town. — This is allowed by all writers to be the piece of land mentioned by St. John, which Jacob bought "at the

the hand of the children of Emmor," and when he erected his altar to "the God of Israel." Afterwards, as the day dawned, a cloudless sky foretold the excessive heat we should have to encounter in this day's journey; and before noon, the mercury in Fahrenheit's thermometer, in the most shaded situation we could find, stood at 102.—At two o'clock P. M., we halted for a little repose near a well, beneath the shade of a ruined building. Here, upon some pieces of mouldy biscuit, a few raw onions, (the only food we could find upon the spot,) and the water of the well, we all of us fed with the best possible appetite.—At three P. M. we again mounted our horses, and proceeded on our route. No sensation of fatigue or heat could counterbalance the eagerness and zeal which animated all our party in the approach to Jerusalem; every individual pressed forward, hoping to be the first to announce the joyful intelligence of its appearance. At length, after about two hours had been passed in this state of anxiety and suspence, a Greek in the van of our cavalcade, ascending a hill towards the south, exclaimed "Hagiopolis!" and throwing himself from his horse, was seen bareheaded, upon his knees, facing the prospect he surveyed. Suddenly the sight burst upon us all. We had not been prepared for the grandeur of the spectacle which the city exhibited. Instead of a wretched and ruined town, by some described as the desolated remnant of Jerusalem, we beheld, as it were, a flourishing and stately metropolis; presenting a magnificent assemblage of domes, towers, palaces, churches, and monasteries; all of which, glittering in the sun's rays, shone with inconceivable splendor.'—'We were conducted to the house of the Governor, who received us in very great state. Being informed of all our projects, he ordered his interpreter to go with us to the Franciscan convent of St. Salvador, a large building like a fortress, the gates of which were thrown open to receive our whole cavalcade. Here, when we were admitted into a court, with all our horses and camels, the vast portals were again closed, and a party of the most corpulent friars we had ever seen from the warmest cloisters of Spain and Italy waddled round us, and heartily welcomed our arrival.'—'The room allotted to our English party, we found to be the same which many travellers have before described. It was clean, and its walls were white-washed. The beds, also, had a cleanly appearance; although a few bugs warned us to spread our hammocks upon the floor. Upon the substantial door of this chamber, whose roof was of vaulted stone, the names of many English travellers had been carved. Among others we had the satisfaction to notice that of Thomas Shaw, the most learned writer who has yet appeared in descriptions of the Levant. Dr. Shaw had slept in the same apartment seventy-nine years before our coming.—

'A large part of this convent, surrounding an elevated open court or terrace, is appropriated to the reception of pilgrims, for whose maintenance the monks have considerable funds, the result of donations from Catholics of all ranks, but especially from Catholic Princes. Knowing, from long habit in waiting upon pilgrims, the taste of different nations, they most hospitably entertain their comers according to the notions they have thus acquired. If a table be provided

provided for Englishmen or for Dutchmen, they supply it copiously with tea. This pleasing and refreshing beverage was served every morning and evening while we remained, in large bowls, and we drank it out of pewter porringers.'—

'Friday, July 10.—This morning our room was filled with Armenians and Jews, bringing for sale the only produce of the Jerusalem manufactures; beads, crosses, shells, &c.—We set out to visit what *are called* "the Holy Places." These are all amply described by at least an hundred authors. From the monastery we descended to the church of the Holy Sepulchre; attended by several pilgrims, bearing with them rosaries and crucifixes, for consecration on the tomb of Jesus Christ.—We came to a goodly structure, whose external appearance resembled that of an ordinary Roman Catholic Church. Over the door we observed a bas-relief, executed in a style of sculpture meriting more attention than it has hitherto received; upon a nearer view, we recognized the history of the Messiah's entry into Jerusalem, the multitude strewing palm branches before him.—Entering the church, the first thing they shewed to us was a slab of white marble in the pavement, surrounded by a rail. It seemed like one of the grave-stones in the floor of our English churches. This, they told us, was the spot where our Saviour's body was anointed by Joseph of Arimathea. The interior of this strange fabric is divided into two parts. Having entered the first part, which is a kind of ante-chapel, they shew *you*, before the mouth of what is called the sepulchre, the stone whereon the angel sat; this is a block of white marble, neither corresponding with the mouth of the sepulchre, nor with the substance from which it must have been hewn; for the rocks of Jerusalem are all of common compact limestone. All that can therefore now be affirmed is that, if the Empress Helena had reason to believe she could identify the spot where the sepulchre was, she took especial care to remove every existing trace of it, in order to introduce the fanciful and modern work which now remains. The place *may* be the same pointed out to her: but not a remnant of the original sepulchre can now be ascertained.'—'The traveller is afterwards conducted through such a farrago of absurdities, that it is wonderful the learned men, who have described Jerusalem, should have filled their pages with any serious detail of them. Nothing, however, can surpass the fidelity with which Sandys has particularized every circumstance of all this trumpery; and his rude cuts are characterized by equal exactness.'—

'It is time to quit these degrading fallacies: let us break from our monkish instructors; and, instead of viewing Jerusalem as pilgrims, examine it by the light of history, with the Bible in our hands. We shall thus find many interesting objects of contemplation. If Mount Calvary has sunk beneath the overwhelming influence of superstition, studiously endeavouring to modify and to disfigure it, through so many ages; if the situation of Mount Sion yet remains to be ascertained; the Mount of Olives, undisguised by fanatical labours, exhibits the appearance it presented in all the periods of its history. The features of nature continue the same, though works of art have been done away: the beautiful gate of the Temple is

no

no more; but Siloa's fountain haply flows, and Kedron sometimes murmurs in the valley of Jehosaphat.'

Distrustful of the traditionary records, Dr. C. proceeded to exercise his own eyes in the investigation of the relics of Jerusalem. Having begun by the examination of the hill now bearing the name of Sion, and situated on the south side of Jerusalem, he is led to doubt the accuracy of the appellation, and to suppose it to have been Mount Calvary, the scene of the crucifixion. In this opinion he was confirmed by observing a number of excavations in the rock on the sides of the opposite mountain, hitherto supposed to be the "Hill of Offence." These excavations were sepulchres of uniform workmanship, containing a series of subterranean chambers, each of which had one or more repositories for the dead, carved like cisterns, on the side of the chamber. The doors were so low as to make it necessary to stoop in entering, and sometimes to creep on the hands and knees: a kind of sepulchre which was common throughout a considerable part of Asia. On those which we have just mentioned, are inscriptions both in Greek and Hebrew, the latter much more effaced than the former. The words της ἁγιας Σιων were inscribed in large letters on most of them; a circumstance which, connected with the ruins on the top of the mountain, induced Dr. C. to regard this as the real Sion. Without following him in his attempts to ascertain the position of our Saviour's sepulchre, we have little difficulty in taking it for granted that former descriptions have proceeded on an erroneous assumption, and that much remains for the search of future travellers. In the Empress Helena's conduct, we may safely conclude that a larger portion of zeal than of judgment was exerted. Before her time, Jerusalem had been in the possession of Pagans; and in seeking to identify the places mentioned in our Saviour's history, a fissure in a rock, apparently accidental, was accounted the sign of the convulsion of nature at the crucifixion, and adopted as indicative of the spot. Though Helena is not responsible for the ridiculous legends of after-ages, the church built by her over the sacred place appeared to travellers in the light of a complete authentication of the ground, and checked the activity of farther investigation.

On leaving the mountain, in the side of which these sepulchres are hewn, Dr. C. and his friends regained the road leading eastward to the valley of Jehosaphat, and passed the fountain Siloa, as well as the white mulberry tree which is said to mark the spot of Isaiah's death. Hence they ascended the Mount of Olives; which afforded them so commanding a view of Jerusalem, that the eye roamed over its streets and walls as if in the survey of a model. Conspicuous above all is the mosque

of

of Omar, erected on the site of Solomon's temple. This is indeed a Phœnix risen from the ashes of its parent, and may probably be considered as the finest specimen of Saracenic architecture in the world. The streets of Jerusalem are cleaner than those of any other town near the Mediterranean; though, as is uniformly the case in that country, they are very narrow. The houses are lofty; and, as no windows appear in the lower story, while those in the upper are latticed, the passage seems to be between blank walls. The bazars or shops are, unfortunately, in an unwholesome situation. The circumference of the modern town of Jerusalem is only two miles and a half, while that of the antient town appears to have been three miles and a half; accordingly, only one of the two conspicuous hills of old Jerusalem is now covered. The Mount of Olives, from which the travellers made this survey, is remarkable for various events in the Jewish history. It was to its summit that King David ascended to address a prayer to Heaven, when he was about to be driven from Jerusalem by Absalom's rebellion: it was at the descent of this Mount that our Saviour foretold the downfall of the Holy City; and, finally, it was on the side of this Mount that the army of Titus encamped to accomplish the prediction. The view of the country from its top is extensive; the most striking object being the wide expanse of the Dead Sea, or Lake Asphaltites, surrounded by lofty mountains. Between this Lake and Jerusalem are seen the fertile pastures of the plain of Jericho, watered by the Jordan, whose course may be distinctly traced.—On coming down from the Mount, the travellers visited the olive-ground, which is described, and with reason, as the garden of Gethsemane. Near this they found a grove of olive-trees, of immense size, which suggested to them the idea of cutting off specimens as presents to those friends who might wish to obtain memorials of the Holy Land. Olives continue to grow on the hill which derived its name from them 3000 years ago, in the same way that pomegranates are still seen to abound in Rhodes, and oaks in the forests of Dodona.

A subsequent excursion from Jerusalem was directed to the extraordinary burial-place situated about a mile north-west of the city, and erroneously called "The sepulchres of the Kings of Judah." This capacious place of burial exhibits a series of subterraneous chambers, extending in different directions, so as to form a sort of labyrinth; and each chamber contains a certain number of receptacles, not much larger than our coffins. The taste manifested in the interior of these chambers is evidently later than the age of the Kings of Judah, and seems to support an opinion that the most spacious of these sepulchres was the

burial-place of Helena, Queen of Adiabene.—Of the different monasteries in Jerusalem, the Armenian is the largest and most worthy of notice. Here, as well as in other places of the Levant, strangers from Europe are addressed on the downfall of the Turkish empire as an event to be eagerly desired.—With these observations, Dr. C. takes leave of Jerusalem; and we shall detain our readers no longer than to make two remarks which, we hope, may not be altogether devoid of interest. On the top of Mount Olivet, Dr. Clarke observed a kind of subterraneous pyramid, the point of which was level with the soil, while the sides extended below to a great depth. This is exactly similar to the conical substruction at Mycenæ, called by some the Tomb of Agamemnon, and by others his treasury; and so remarkable a coincidence implies a derivation from a common origin, and leaves little doubt that both are to be referred to Phœnicia.—Our next remark applies to the Monolithal sepulchres, seen both at Telmessus (p. 254.) and at Jerusalem (p. 593.). It is curious that none of these monuments had originally an entrance; and at present the only way of obtaining a sight of the interior is through an aperture made in the side. Is it not probable that these were Cenotaphs, as in the Ceramicus of Athens, hollowed out, and erected in memory of persons who died in a foreign land? Solid vases, representing cinerary urns, and bearing epitaphs, are still found in different parts of Greece; though no ashes, it is evident, could have been inclosed in them.

One of the few manufactures of Jerusalem consists of beads, made either from date-stones or from a peculiar kind of hard wood. They are in request among Turks as well as Oriental Christians. 'The Turks,' says Dr. C., (p. 537.) 'call a string of ninety-nine beads Tespy; this number of beads corresponding with their names of the Deity.' This remark of Dr. C. will be correct if for *names* we read *attributes*: the Turks have no more names for the Deity than we have, but they have a practice of repeating one of his attributes on counting over each bead of their rosary; thus, Allah the *great*, the *good*, the *merciful*, &c. While on the subject of Turkish epithets, it may be worth while to advert to another exceptionable passage in these travels. It occurs (p. 348.) on the delivery of the credentials of the party to the Governor of Cyprus, a personage ill fitted to do credit to the Porte. 'At sight of these credentials, (says Dr. C.) his new-made Excellency affected to turn up his nose, muttering between his teeth the expressive word *Djowr*, a term used by the Turks to express either a dog or an infidel.' The pronounciation of this contemptuous epithet would have been better expressed by spelling it Gyowr; and in meaning it is not synonimous with '*dog*,' *kupek* being the name

name of that unclean animal. Gyowr is of Persian origin, a denotes a worshipper of fire; being, we believe, the sa word that is sometimes written by Franks, *Guebres*.—On readi a passage (p. 343.) relative to the Carob-tree, or *Ceratonia Sili* of Linné, it appeared odd to us that a traveller skilled in bota should say no more than that 'it is sometimes called St. Joh bread-tree.' The common name in the Levant for the fruit this tree is *locusta*; a coincidence of sound which has led the belief of its having been a part of the casual nourishment the Baptist in the desert, where "his food was locusts and w honey." It is shaped like the pod of a large scarlet-bean, a its taste is mawkishly sweet.

To return to the travelling party. Bethlehem being only miles from Jerusalem, Dr. C. and his companions were deterred from visiting it even by the apprehension of plague, which was raging there with fatal violence: but t adopted the precaution of forming their cavalcade in a kind order which prevented contact with the inhabitants, and de mined to be satisfied with a cursory inspection of the place. covers the ridge of a hill extending from east to west al the southern side of an extensive valley; and it is a towr considerable extent, the houses of which are all white, and h as is usual in this country, flat roofs: but it was almost dese by the inhabitants, who, having fled from the contagion, w seen stationed in tents along the adjoining hills. The most c spicuous object is the monastery erected over the cave of nativity, on the east side of the town. The party rode u the great gate, but accounted it too hazardous to enter. Pas close by the walls of the monastery, they proceeded down the valley, and halted in an olive-plantation; stationing a gu to keep off all persons who were likely to be infected. H they sat down to take a repast, fetching water from a situated on the outside of the olive-ground; and which t had no doubt was the same with the one mentioned in the hist of David, 2 Samuel, xxiii. v. 15. David was a native of Bet hem; and when the Philistines were in possession of the pl he is recorded (ibid.) to have exclaimed, "Oh that one wo give me drink of the water of the well of Bethlehem, wh is by the gate." The exclamation being overheard, his th boldest warriors, Adino, Eleazar, and Shammah, ventured make their way through the Philistine garrison, drew the wa and brought it to David; who refused to drink what had b obtained at so much hazard, and poured it out as an offerin God.—With regard to the cave of the nativity, Dr. C. entertai no doubt of the accurate position of the building erected over reputed spot, but felt very little disappointment in not seein

be

being aware that his patience would be again tried by a repetition of the mummery which is common among the monks of the Holy Land. The manufacture of crucifixes and beads supports many of the inhabitants of Bethlehem, as well as of Jerusalem: but the former claim a kind of exclusive right to the singular privilege of marking the limbs and bodies of pilgrims with crosses and stars, by means of gun-powder.

Leaving the halting-place by the well, Dr. Clarke and his companions returned to Jerusalem, and, without re-entering the city, took the straight road to Jaffa, on the coast. The distance from Jerusalem to Jaffa is less than 50 miles, and has long been the principal route of pilgrims; yet it is in many parts a passage over rugged and pathless rocks. It is moreover infested by predatory Arabs, who find a retreat in the excavations of the rocks which were used in former ages as sepulchres, or as dwellings by the Philistine inhabitants. After several miles of very difficult travelling, the party reached the valley of Elah, where the youthful David first became known, by his victory over the champion of Gath. They saw the opposite mountains, on the one of which stood the Philistines, while on the other "Saul and the men of Israel were gathered together." The brook, whence David "chose him five smooth stones," has been noticed by many thirsty pilgrims proceeding from Jaffa to Jerusalem, the road leading across it.—Having passed about 30 miles, the author came to the town of Ramah, situated in the middle of an extensive plain. Ramah, though probably not the place mentioned in Matthew, (ii. 17.) is a town of antiquity, dating its origin apparently from the prosperous reign of Solomon. Whatever may have been its condition during succeeding ages, it is ascertained to have been a populous and thriving city at the time of the Crusades; and the ground around it is so fertile as to resemble a continual garden.—Joppa, now called Jaffa, terminated the journey of the travellers *. This

* In speaking of Jaffa, Dr. Clarke bears strong testimony to the improbability of the story of the massacre committed there by order of Bonaparte. The Doctor says that he never heard from the British Consul there, nor from any of the inhabitants, the slightest accusation of this kind: though they were loud in their general complaints against the French, and there was 'nothing they would not have said to vilify Bonaparte or his officers.' He adds that Captain Culverhouse, of the navy, (now deceased,) who was his companion at Jaffa, afterward expressed to him 'his astonishment at the industrious propagation of a story *whereof* the inhabitants of Jaffa were ignorant, and of which he had never heard a syllable until his arrival in England.' The author and Captain C. discovered the remains of human corpses half uncovered in the sand, and were informed by the Consul that they were the bodies of persons who had died during the late plague.

was in antient times the only sea-port of Judæa; and hither the wood for Solomon's Temple was fetched by sea from Mount Lebanon, previously to its conveyance by land to the Holy city. As a station for vessels, however, this harbour is so bad that ships of burden find it necessary to anchor at the distance of a mile. Here the travellers embarked in a coasting vessel for Acre, and saw on the passage the extensive ruins of Cæsarea. This place, which received its name from Herod in honour of Augustus, and rose rapidly to splendour, is now a mere haunt of jackals and other beasts of prey: but its ruins are interesting, as well on account of their remaining magnitude as for covering the spot on which St. Paul made his eloquent appeal in presence of the King of Judæa.

The arrival of the travellers in the road of Acre now brought the expedition to a close, and well might they be thankful at its termination. In addition to the alarm of infection from the plague, they had been subjected to grievous penance from miserable accommodations on the route. It was in vain that they expected at night some rest from the fatigue of the preceding day. They were incessantly pestered by fleas and other vermin; and, in their sleeping apartments, one or another of the party was successively starting up to shake himself free from the annoyance. On arriving at Tiberias, they were shewn into a spacious and airy chamber, where they hoped to pass one night at least in repose: but the Sheik, to their dismay, burst into laughter, and repeated the current saying, "The king of the fleas holds his court in Tiberias." The naval gentlemen of the party slung their hammocks with great nicety from the walls: but all to little purpose, their torment being scarcely less than that of their humbler comrades on the bare planks.

Having extended our abstract of Dr. C.'s travels to the farthest verge of our limits, it remains only that we sum up with some general observations on the merit of his composition; and while we execute this duty, after we have taken so much pains to point out to the public the striking parts of his narrative, he may, in the extent of his charity, forgive us the exercise of a considerable share of freedom. In the first place, we must say that here, as in his former volume, his accuracy is subjected to suspicion, by the occurrence of sundry contradictions. Almost at the beginning, (p. 4.) it is said, 'there is every reason to believe that the Turks at the conquest of Constantinople adopted many of the customs and embraced the refinements of a people they had subdued. Their former habits had been those of Nomade tribes.' Now, the Turks were by this time in a very different state from that of Nomade tribes; and, which is not a little strange, we have only to turn

over a single leaf of Dr. C's book to read (p. 6.) these remarkable words: 'It may become a question whether at the capture of Constantinople the victors or the vanquished were the most polished people.' Again, in stating the French loss on the memorable 21st of March, at Alexandria, Dr. C. says, (p. 270.) 'in that action, the French lost *five* thousand men:' yet in p. 278. he returns to the subject, states that 'five French Generals were killed,' and adds, 'their loss was not less than *four* thousand.' His language has before been the object of animadversion: but it may still be incumbent on us to substantiate our charge on that head; — we mean the charge of tempting us away from a taste for plain composition by the example of an amplified, and, as harsh critics would say, a turgid style. Dr. C. is certainly not one of those votaries of simplicity who would join in lamenting as pernicious the influence of Johnson and Gibbon; and after all his toils by sea and land, we question whether many tasks would cause him more difficulty than that of telling a plain fact in plain language. The vessel which conveyed him from the Dardanelles to Ægypt is described (p. 172.) as literally nothing more than a 'covered boat;' and the master as impatient (p. 259.) to measure his fists with a savage mountaineer near the Gulph of Glaucus. Yet this same master is included (p. 193.) among the 'most enlightened seamen of the present day.' Examples of the same kind are to be found in every part of the book, beginning from the preface. The frequent recurrence of magnificent appellations has taught us caution in taking Dr. Clarke's encomiums *à la lettre*; so that were we reading aloud his animated descriptions to an admiring audience, a regard for accuracy would prescribe to us the mortifying necessity of often leaving out the epithets which constitute the brightest colouring in the picture. No illustration that we could offer would express his style and manner so happily as it was effected by old Djezzar Pacha, at their first interview. After having handed to the Captain of the Romulus a paper-cannon as an emblem of his profession, and marked Dr. C.'s manner of translating to that officer the plain words which he (the Pacha) had used, the sagacious veteran slipped into the Doctor's hand a paper-flower, denoting, as he said, "*a florid interpretation of blunt speech.*"

Connected with this inflation of style, we have to notice a correspondent amplification of matter. Not contented with abusing the Empress Helena as an early contributor to the legendary tales which are current among the Christians in the Holy Land, Dr. C. goes so far as to add, (p. 434.) that 'had the sea of Tiberias been capable of annihilation by her means,

it would have been desiccated, paved, and covered with churches.' In another passage, (p. 135.) on observing the vestiges of a quadruped on the snow of Mount Gargarus, he boldly pronounces them to be the 'footsteps of a tyger;' without considering the likelihood of their having been imprinted by an animal of less classical dignity, but more familiar with a cold region.—That deficiency of method in the arrangement of materials, which vexed us so much in the former volume, has been equally annoying on the present occasion; and the reader can scarcely attempt to study, in connection, a single description of length, without being exposed to considerable perplexity. To go no farther than the passage to which we have just alluded, we find the interview with Djezzar begun in one page, and broken off in the next by a transition to his early history, which again deviates into a long digression on the local importance of the port of Acre; so that seven pages are filled before the business of the interview is resumed. Again, if we turn over to the account of Bethlehem, we find Dr. C. no sooner beginning to describe its appearance, than he turns off to a long list of erroneous notions on the subject of the Dead Sea. Similar trespasses are apparent in different parts of the account of Jerusalem. Typographical errors also occur, which will require the author's correction in the next edition; for instance, his readers will be somewhat puzzled on finding a General Kleber (Koehler) figuring (p. 638.) in the capacity of a British artillery officer.—Other examples might be added, but the task is ungracious; and the Doctor, notwithstanding his errors, has gratified us too much to allow of our parting in bad humour. One of his pleasing features is a candour in pleading guilty to the effects of his own imprudence. That disposition, which in his Russian tour nearly led him into serious trouble, was productive of similar danger in his southern peregrination. To pass over his pertinacity in insisting on approaching Djezzar Pacha (p. 386.) at an unseasonable hour, we prefer taking notice, as a warning to others, of an occurrence on the journey to Jerusalem. When under a guard of Arabs, Dr. C. gave way to his anger at the misconduct of one of the escort, so far as to strike him; an outrage which, coming from the hands of an infidel, immediately inflamed the surrounding Mohammedans, and almost proved fatal to every Christian in the party. The Doctor, without dwelling on the provocation received, has no hesitation in taking blame to himself.—Another characteristic of him is his zeal in carrying on local researches notwithstanding the insalubrity of the spot. This ardor appears to have more than once affected his health, and leads to observations on climate (pp. 203 232. 312. 373, 374.) which, though somewhat too strongly expressed, have

have a claim on the attention of future travellers. During the summer-months, the coast of the Mediterranean is dangerous in most of the situations in which the circulation of air is confined; and the sites of antient cities, formerly the abode of health and cheerfulness, are now frequently surrounded by marshes, owing to the neglect of the channels which were used, in better days, as conduits. Athens, indeed, forms an exception: but few places have equal advantages of situation. That a scrupulous attention to diet is of importance, the boldest among us will scarcely doubt, when we find the veteran Professor Pallas writing (p. 203.) to Dr. C. and his friends, when setting out for the Greek isles, "*Have a care of the three poisons; eggs, butter, and milk.*"

We shall conclude our criticism by a few observations on the ornaments of this work. In that respect, the present volume will equally with the former excite the public attention. It contains thirty-three engravings, copper-plates, maps, and charts; and twenty one vignettes. The choice of a frontispiece has very properly fallen on a representation of the source of the Scamander pouring down from the heights of Ida. Among the other plates, Mr. Morritt's plan of the ruins of Cnidus deserves to be particularized for its clearness and apparent accuracy. Of the vignettes, one of the most instructive is the sketch (p. 204.) of the Gulph of Glaucus; and we may mention the two Sidonian medals, (p. 359.) which exhibit the beautiful Greek profile.

ART. II. *The Life of the Rev. John Hough, D. D.*, successively Bishop of Oxford, Lichfield and Coventry, and Worcester; formerly President of St. Mary Magdalen College, Oxford, in the Reign of King James II. Containing many of his Letters, and biographical Notices of several Persons with whom he was connected. By John Wilmot, Esq. F.R.S. and S.A. 4to. With Plates. 1l. 11s. 6d. Boards. White and Co. &c. 1812.

THE celebrity and exaltation of some individuals depend more on the circumstances in which they are placed, and on the "form and pressure" of the times in which they live, than on their own brilliancy of genius or extent of erudition. In the subject of this memoir we recognize a case in point. All readers of English history are acquainted with the strong attachment of our second James to the cause of Popery, and with the bold measures which he adopted in order to procure a preponderance in its favour among the learned men of both our Universities. It was in consequence of the situation to which Dr. Hough was appointed in the University of Oxford, that he

excited the particular attention of the monarch; and hi subsequent elevations were owing to the protestant firmnes which he displayed on that occasion. At this period, the county was presented with the singular phænomenon of the Church i opposition to the King, and the object of the monarch wa defeated by the firmness of the learned members of the Esta blishment in behalf of the reformed religion. After such lapse of time, however, these events now produce no stron interest in our minds; and the memoirs of Hough, though dis playing a very respectable character, do not furnish incident sufficient for the structure of a captivating specimen of biogra phy: yet the volume invites attention by being splendidl printed, and adorned with portraits and other engravings. W shall offer an outline of the matter before us.

John Hough was born in London, 12th April 1651; an entered at Magdalen College 12th November 1669; of whic foundation, after a few years, he was elected a fellow. H took orders in 1675, became domestic chaplain to the Duke o Ormond in 1678, was made a prebendary of Worcester i 1685, and in 1687 was proposed for the presidentship of Magda len College, then vacant by the death of Dr. Henry Clarke.

A Mr. Anthony Farmer, however, having influence at court obtained from King James letters mandatory, signed in the King' name by Lord Sunderland, which recommended it to th college to choose Farmer for their president: but Farme had never been a fellow of the college; and the letters man datory in his behalf were moreover sent through a Roma Catholic, Mr. Robert Charnock. The fellows therefore met and resolved to present an humble petition to the King, statin that, by the statutes of their founder, Mr. Farmer was not admis sible to the office; and beseeching his Majesty to leave then to the discharge of their duty and conscience, according to hi late most gracious toleration. The term allowed for electio having expired before any answer to this petition was received the college assembled, and chose for their president the Reveren Mr. Hough. He was in due course presented to their visitor the Bishop of Winchester, and installed in the chapel on th 17th April. It appears that Lord Sunderland wrote to th visitor, by the King's command, desiring him not to admit Mr Hough: but the Bishop was obliged to send for answer that th ceremony had been performed the day before.

Many applications were made to the King in behalf of th fellows of Magdalen College, by themselves, by the Bishop o Winchester, their visitor, and by the Duke of Ormond, th Chancellor of the University: but, notwithstanding all thes intercessions, they were cited to appear at Whitehall before hi Majesty'

Majesty's commissioners* for ecclesiastical causes, by whom the election of Mr. Hough was declared void, and a decree was issued that he should be removed from his office of president. This decree was pronounced on the presumption that His Majesty's prerogative, as head of the church, extended over elective preferments; and that a *congé d'élire* is as necessary a preliminary to a college for the election of its president or master, as to a chapter for the election of its bishop. In a word, these commissioners endeavoured to arrogate for the sovereign a *veto* on the appointment of heads of colleges. Their claim was adapted to rouse the corporate spirit, or the independent spirit, of the Established Church; and an alarming cry was raised that the King wanted to seize the colleges for the Papists.

The monarch, however, long persisted obstinately in his claim of right, but was willing to waive the individual candidate, whose dubious *catholicism* had given a pretext for alarm. The fellows of Magdalen also persevered in their disobedience, with a constancy which does honour to the firmness and disinterestedness of all the members, and of the president, Hough, in particular. The Quaker, William Penn, was employed as mediator between the Church and the King: but he did not succeed in producing any compromise. A special commission was then appointed to visit the college, and to cite before them the *pretended* president. The whole interrogatory is here given, which terminated with the declaration of Dr. Hough, "I appeal to my sovereign lord the King in his courts of justice†;" and the students applauded aloud the dignified courage of the president. Some farther details might have been gleaned from the history of King James's ecclesiastical commission, concerning the King's visit to Oxford, and other matters not less intimately connected with this biography. The royal commissioners proceeded to deprive the refractory fellows of their fellowships: only two of whom were found willing to make any submission to the King; and only these two were to be suffered to retain their emoluments.

Meanwhile, the trial of the seven bishops whom the King had sent to the Tower, the spirit manifested by the nation on that occasion, and the notoriety of the preparations making in Holland for an invasion, disposed the court to bend; and Lord

* These Commissioners were appointed by royal authority only; see the History of the Ecclesiastical Commission, printed in 1711.

† A well-executed bas relief on the Bishop's monument in Worcester cathedral represents this spirited conduct of Dr. Hough before the royal commissioners.

Sunderland wrote on the 12th October 1688, to the Bishop of Worcester, signifying that the King having declared his resolution to preserve the Church of England, and all its rights and privileges, had commanded him to signify to him his will and pleasure, that, [illegible] in Oxford, he should [illegible]." Accordingly, the [illegible] and the pretended president [illegible].

[illegible] the Bishopric of Oxford [illegible] University for the risk [illegible] that of Lichfield and Coventry. He married Miss Letitia Fisher; and in [illegible] the Deanery of Worcester, at which see he died in [illegible] age.

Many letters of this Prelate are given in the Appendix, which rather [illegible] the intrinsic merit of the volume, [illegible] to such trivial incidents as [illegible] between intimate friends. They shew, however, that the writer was a sensible man, with a good heart, and a well-cultivated mind. We shall make some extracts, which [illegible] unfavourable specimens. To Lady Kaye, he thus writes:

'Madam, 'January 9th, 1729.

'Your Ladyship's obliging letters keep me from being quite a stranger to the town, for most comes from persons of quality we [illegible] ; their house is open to them, they see and hear at first hand, and know what to say; but common fame is so great a gossip, that we diver dit our own understandings when we hearken to her voice. The stories that go about of a late unfortunate family, according to the inclinations which they who spread them have to favour one or the other side, are such as neither good-nature nor justice can allow probability to; but I am convinced I hear truth from Your Ladyship, and God knows that is bad enough: however, I do not this put you out of conceit with the air you breathe in, for what other inconveniencies it may have: for the country does not want instances of follies of all sorts, to give them the softest name, but many people are covered by their obscurity; their actions are seldom talked of five miles from home, and they quickly cease so much as to be thought of. This I fear is the only moral difference betwixt them and those who live in the eye of the world; they have the same passions, and are as little inclined to restrain them; but they have not so many lookers-on to observe and divulge their failings, which I doubt has made the rural life to pass with the poets for a much more innocent one than it is. But I forget myself in these melancholy reflections, and ought to consider that in the present season, nothing is to be seen or heard of but what is pleasant and agreeable; we show our houses and ourselves dressed out to the best advantage, and

instead

instead of exposing our complaints and infirmities, we offer nothing to our friends but hearty good wishes, and expect they should answer us in the same style. Permit me, therefore, to conform myself to this good old custom, and to tell Your Ladyship, with great sincerity, that none of those who honour you, do more earnestly pray for health and happiness to you and your nearest relations, than

'Madam, &c.'

In a subsequent letter, he discovers the piety of his mind:

'Madam, 'November 15th, 1730.

'I am sure Your Ladyship could not write the letter you have honoured me with, without putting a force upon yourself, and therefore I receive it as a mark of your friendship, and am very thankful for it, though it informs me of the loss of a lady who was truly valuable in herself, beloved by all that knew her, and for whom I had a high esteem: but God has delivered her out of a great deal of misery; she has shewed the constancy and resignation of a good Christian under sufferings that have severely tried her; she is now gone to rest and endless happiness, and what cause have we then to lament? Your Ladyship rightly observes, it is self-love that raises our passions, for we hear of mortality, in general, with too much indifference, and without making those proper reflections that would be of use to us; but when it overtakes a relation, or a friend, we feel the stroke, and human frailty discovers itself; it is true we feel and cannot help it, but reason tells us we must, in spite of our teeth, submit where there is no remedy; and religion goes much further, requiring us not only to submit, but to acquiesce contentedly and willingly in the dispensations of Providence. This is a doctrine not easily learned, and with many is of hard digestion; but it must go down, and it is our interest that it should: it is impossible for afflictions not to sit heavy on the mind of one who is serious and sensible; but they who suffer them to gall and fret, are their own enemies, and forget their duty.'

We find by a letter to Mrs. Mary Knightley, written in the Spring of 1731 or 1732, that the old Bishop amused himself at Hartlebury in a very rational manner:

'The Spring comes on in a most delightful manner; and, old as I am, I cannot forbear, after the Winter's confinement, to peep out as the insects do, and see how the little improvements are carried on about me. My horses and carts have for some time never been at rest, from conveying earth to a low piece of ground, which, by degrees, we have gained from the moat; a tedious work, that makes no shew at present but of rubbish and disorder: yet I flatter myself, that when it comes to be laid out into something of a regular form, the idea of which is yet only in my head, my pains will not appear to be ill bestowed; for I shall then have above an acre of ground, in a garden of a whimsical, and unusual, but not disagreeable figure, which, I believe, never fell under your notice;—I am sure it never deserved it. I expect to be censured for going on in little trifling designs of this nature at my time of day. Some will ask, "What prospect can he have of seeing any thing finished, or brought to maturity?" Others, perhaps,

perhaps, will be so severe as to say, I should now spend my reflections only upon the earth that is soon to cover me; that there all our worldly thoughts perish, and a man so near the grave as myself should learn to shake them off, and let others succeed of a more exalted nature: but let me tell them, that works of that sort, in which I amuse myself, promote the most serious thoughts; that vanity and folly are never more out of the head, than when it is taken up in schemes that are innocent; not to say, that every body living has, and must have, some diversion.'

As the letter of a man at the age of 92, the last in this collection may be deemed a curiosity:

'Madam, 'April 4th, 1743.

'Three months have passed since you honoured me with a letter, which deserved my earliest and best thanks. I had heard of the young gentleman's painful indisposition. I felt the concern of a truly affectionate friend, and the notice you gave me of his recovery brought ease to my mind; but in good truth, I was not then in a good condition to tell you so. A severe cold disturbed me, almost continually; it allowed me to do nothing but doze away the time in rambling, incoherent thoughts, which was no proper time to address the most sensible of my friends; I think I have now gotten the better of it, and am easy as I was before.

'Thus far had I written when your most obliging letter of March the 30th came to my hand, and told me of your kind concern for my welfare. By the mercy of God, I can still say I never am sick, nor feel any sharp pain; but every day is a great portion of the life that can be expected by one so old as I am, and indeed I think I have not many to come. I am much pleased that Mr. Eardly Wilmot has chosen a wife whose character you approve; it is an argument of his good sense, that he looks not after money in the first place; for if God gives him life and health he cannot fail of making his fortune.

'I grow weary of my pen, but cannot leave off till I have told you, that the next time the King goes to the House of Lords, an act of Parliament will pass, for committing Elmley Castle in this county, and the estates belonging to it, in trust to Lord Deerhurst, Lord Guernsey, and Mr. John Biddulph, for a term of years, who (if Chancellor Byrche's son lives to the age of twenty-one,) are to deliver it up to him so absolutely, as that he, taking the name of Savage, may settle or sell it as he pleases. He will be twelve years old in May next, is handsome in his person, very hopeful, and now at Westminster-school. There is a charge of £20,000 upon the estate, but £5,000 of it is to his mother, and it is not long since £44,000 was offered for the purchase of it. Mrs. Byrche has two daughters, to whom their father left £1,500 each, but she is able to treble it, if she sees good, and I know designs well for them. The eldest is handsome, the youngest not ill-favoured, nor ill-shaped.

'Be pleased to give my kind and humble service to Mrs. Marow, and Mrs. Knightley and your son, when they return to Berkswell, and

to

to receive this as the last letter* that is likely to be written by the hand of,

'Madam,
'Your sincerely affectionate Friend,
'and obedient, faithful Servant,
'Jo. WORCESTER.'

On the 8th of May following the good Bishop died. As addenda, are given some letters addressed to Dr. Hough in June and July 1687, when the President and Fellows of Magdalen College were cited to appear before the Commissioners for Ecclesiastical Causes, which contain some account of their reception. The next is a letter from the celebrated Addison soon after the death of his father, who had been Dean of Lichfield.

A sketch of Dr. Hough's character is thus furnished by Mr. Wilmot:

'With regard to his public character, it appears from the history of those times, in which he displayed the great energies of his mind in contending against the tyranny of a Popish monarch, that he was, with some other illustrious men, raised up as a providential instrument to oppose those measures, which, without a seasonable resistance, would have overturned the whole fabrick of our civil and ecclesiastical constitution.

'On this occasion, his fortitude was tempered with prudence, moderation, and the most dignified loyalty. It is impossible to review this interesting scene of his life without feeling a glow of affectionate remembrance for a man, who was one of the principal assertors of our political and religious liberties, at a critical period, and when opposition to a corrupt court was replete with difficulty and danger. A remarkable example was here exhibited to future ages, evincing both the real spirit of bigotry, and at the same time shewing the peril of submitting to any insidious attacks on our excellent constitution, or any material changes in our Protestant establishments. As long as those principles in which the Protestant Church of England is founded, are fully known and justly appreciated, so long will the name of HOUGH be embalmed in the heart of every friend to the religion and liberties of his country. By the sacrifice of his temporal interest to the duty which he owed to his God and to his country, he presents to us, in the earliest display of his public character, an instance of genuine patriotism, originating from the conscientious sense of religious obligation, and terminating in a glorious victory over usurpation and violence. If royal gratitude had not elevated him to a distinguished situation in the church, as the reward of his meritorious services, there can be no noubt, but that he would have retired into

* 'This was indeed the last letter addressed by the Bishop to Mrs. Knightley; for he died in the beginning of the succeeding month. Mrs. Knightley survived him seven years, and died 1750, aged 73.'

privacy

privacy without a murmur, with the pleasing consciousness of havin done his duty.

'From a retrospect of his episcopal character, we may discern i him a consistency of wise and amiable conduct, which rendered hi respected and beloved in every exercise of his sacred function. In h parliamentary duties, he stedfastly adhered to those principles whic he had imbibed, and for which he suffered before his exaltation. Un alterable in the love of his country, and attached to no distinction o party, he maintained a moderation towards those of opposite sent ments without any dereliction of his own. He was uniform in sup port of the principles which seated King William on the throne but was not of an ambitious or aspiring nature, and took no shar in the political disputes of the day, which, though in themselves of in ferior moment, unfortunately at that time divided the nation. Wher ever the broad principles of liberty, or of the established religion wer concerned, he was as warm in their support as ever; but without an tincture of bigotry or intolerance.

'Toleration, indeed, was one of his invariable principles, both i public and private life. In the one it was apparent from his conduc in Parliament, and in the other from his intercourse with individuals to whom he never shewed any distinction, arising from the considera tion of their sect or party; but acted towards them all on the libera principles of Christian charity and forbearance. He partook indee of the dread of Popery, which, at that time, very generally prevailed and expressed himself sometimes with more than ordinary warmth o subjects connected with it: but allowance must be made for th danger from which the nation had been just rescued, and for feeling excited by the persecution which he had personally experienced.' —

'If we descend to his private character, we shall see the benefactor the master, the friend, the husband, and, above all, the Christian uniformly displayed in the discharge of those social virtues, which with the mixture of human frailty, adorn and endear our nature His piety was always cheerful, nor was the sweetness of his tempe discomposed by those common infirmities which are often attendan on old age and a state of retirement.'

Bishop Hough does not appear to have devoted himself t literary pursuits. He confesses that he never read Milton' Comus; and his biographer informs us that as a divine and writer he was unwilling to obtrude himself on public notice Every thing, however, concurs to shew that he possessed those virtues which are of more value than genius; and that, if he did not shine as a scholar, he was a most estimable member of society.

Art.

ART. III. *Letters to a Friend, on the Evidences, Doctrines, and Duties of the Christian Religion.* By Olinthus Gregory, LL.D. of the Military Academy, Woolwich. Crown 8vo. 2 Vols. 14s. Boards. Baldwin. 1812.

"WE mistake," says Warburton, "the love of our opinions for the love of truth;" and he might have added that our sollicitude for the latter is often subordinate to our zeal for the former. The work before us, if not exactly a proof of this fact, approximates very nearly to it; since Dr. Gregory seems to think that it is of little consequence to produce a sincere conviction of the truth of the Christian revelation, unless, at the same time, he can engraft his own creed on that conviction. With concern we are compelled to make this remark; because, adverting to the philosophical and mathematical acquirements of the author, we opened these volumes with a persuasion that we should here find the evidences of Christianity displayed with that cool judgment and nice discrimination, and enforced on those liberal and comprehensive principles, which would speak conviction to the infidel, while they strengthened the faith and enlivened the hopes of *all* the followers of Christ. Alas! we were deceived. Dr. G. writes for the disciples of his own school, not for the world at large. He does not choose to keep the evidences and the doctrines of the Gospel distinct, which in the discussion of the divinity of our Saviour's mission they ought in a great measure to be: but he so completely amalgamates the one with the other, as to leave all those who will not embrace his opinions in the stigmatized class of infidels. This mode of proceeding is surely as disingenuous as it is singular. Are all those to be unchristianized who cannot discover in the Christian code every tittle that Dr. G. finds in it; and may not a person be persuaded of the divinity of the sacred Scriptures, without admitting this gentleman to be their interpreter? Hear him on this head, in vol. ii. p. 15.: 'I wish you to believe, that there is no intermediate ground in argument, which a fair, candid, and unsophisticated reasoner can render tenable, between *pure Deism and moderate orthodoxy*.' The plain meaning of this passage is, that all who are not moderately orthodox are pure Deists. Unitarians! here is "a hard knock" at you, which you must repel in the best way that you can.—Since, however, the *moderate* orthodoxy of Dr. G. is not so moderate as to suit the palates of many who still are not professed Unitarians, it may be well to consider how far this apologist is justified in the use of so sweeping a clause of excommunication. Are all persons Deists who cannot believe in the doctrines of original sin, imputed righteousness, and the eternity of hell-torments? Are any of these

these articles included in any one of the confessions of faith made by those who were admitted to baptism and church-fellowship by the apostles; and, if not, how can this author maintain his bold assertion? According to Dr. Gregory, Sir Isaac Newton, as great a philosopher as himself, and Dr. Lardner, as learned a divine as the last or any age has produced, must have been pure Deists. Surely those who admit the divine mission of Jesus, the truth of the sacred Scriptures, and the resurrection of Christ from the dead, will subscribe to all the evidences of the Christian religion which Dr. G. has adduced; and if they cannot follow him through his detail of doctrines, instead of anathematizing them "by bell, book, and candle," it would have been more liberal for him to have said,

"*Est quŏdam prodire tenus, si non datur ultra.*"

It is very probable that Dr. G. will be angry with us for charging him with a confined line of conduct. 'I have not argued,' says he, 'nor will I argue, exclusively in favour of Calvinism, or Arminianism, or Methodism, or any set of opinions of human fabrication, but in favour of those sentiments and doctrines which are *clearly contained in the Bible*:' — but who says that they are clearly contained in the Bible, Dr. Gregory. — He, however, knows that thousands and tens of thousands, who have studied the Scriptures with as much pious and arduous sollicitude to know the mind and will of God as he has exerted, are persuaded that they are *not* contained in the Bible; and unless he be appointed interpreter-general of the sacred books, he is not authorized in taking the high ground which he has assumed in this very important discussion.

If we have been induced to anticipate the complexion of the second volume before we have adverted to the contents of the first, we have been led to this step by the doctrinal zeal with which Dr. G. is, in our judgment, indiscreetly animated. Let us now, however, turn back to the first volume; and even here the author's creed takes place of the evidences of Christianity. In the preface, he says, 'the crucifixion of Jesus Christ would be no more *to us* (I mention it with reverence) than the death of Socrates, were it not that he suffered as *a sacrifice for sin*:' but this statement is not correct. Another very important benefit flowed to us from the death of Christ, which could not be reaped from the death of Socrates, besides that of his being a sacrifice for sin, viz. his resurrection, to which his death was a necessary prelude. — 'My business,' continues Dr. G., 'has been to refute sentiments which I have deemed erroneous and dangerous, as well as to establish those which to me appear true and beneficial.' To this process, no person can fairly object;

is allowable for a man to use all arguments in support of his own dogmas: but, in an age of learning and free inquiry, and, moreover, in a country which contains a great variety of Christian sects, it is a species of arrogance which will not and must not be endured to brand all those with the obnoxious denomination of *Deists*, who do not reach Dr. Gregory's standard of 'moderate orthodoxy.' This remark we are compelled to make; since the title of the first letter is '*The Folly and Absurdity of Deism.*' Here Dr. G. displays with great energy the absurdities which result from the rejection of Revelation, but which rejection, we hope, is not so extensive as he insinuates. We cordially believe with him that 'it is the first and principal concern of a wise man to inquire into his nature, his duties, and his expectations; to ascertain where he ought to doubt, where to be confident, and where to submit, and that these inquiries necessarily comprize the subject of religion;' and, coinciding with him in this great principle, we wish him so to exhibit religion that it may take a firm hold of the mind and heart, proving both the guide of life and *the anchor of the soul. The necessity of a Revelation of the will of God* has been often urged by the Christian apologist, and the subject is here ably discussed: but we think that the third letter, on *the Opinions of the Heathens, their Poets, and Philosophers, relative to God, to moral Duty, and a future State*, ought to have preceded the second; because, by proving the fact that "the world by wisdom knew not God," the expediency and necessity of Revelation become manifest.

In the fourth letter, we meet the philosopher and mathematician on his own ground, when he labours through several pages to establish *the probability that there should be mysteries in a Revealed Religion.* His mode of argument he seems to consider as unanswerable, and therefore he talks of demonstrating. 'I shall *demonstrate* that those who withhold their assent from any of the propositions of Revealed Religion, because they are incomprehensible, act upon a principle which, if they adopted (it) in other matters, would lead them to the most unbounded and incurable scepticism. This will be effected if I can shew that, in Natural Religion, in many branches of Natural Philosophy, and in several parts of pure and mixed mathematics, there are numerous incontrovertible propositions, which are, notwithstanding, incomprehensible.' Under the head of Natural Religion, he enumerates our ignorance relative to the self or necessary existence, the eternity, omnipresence, &c. of the Supreme Being; under that of Natural Philosophy, our inability to explain the cause of the attraction of gravitation, of cohesion, of electricity, &c.; under the head of pure mathematics,

matics, the asymptotes, &c.; and under that of the mixed thematical science of MECHANICS, it is observed,

'This science is conversant about *force*, *matter*, *time*, *motion*, *space*. Each of these has been the cause of the most elaborate disquisitions, and of the most violent disputes. Let it be asked, What is *force?* If the answerer be candid, his reply will be, "I cannot tell, so as to satisfy every inquirer, or so as to enter into the essence of the thing." Again, what is *matter?* "I cannot tell." What is *time?* "I cannot tell." What is *motion?* "I cannot tell." What is *space?* "I cannot tell." Here, then, is a science, the professed object of which is to determine the mutual relations, dependencies, and changes of quantities, with the real nature of all of which we are unacquainted; and in which the professed object is, notwithstanding, effected. We have certain knowledge respecting subjects of which in themselves we have no knowledge; — demonstrated, irrefragable propositions, respecting the *relations* of things, which in themselves elude the most acute investigations. The reason of this I shall attempt to assign, by and by. But before I proceed farther, I must request that you will acquit me of any intention to depreciate the sciences: on the contrary, they furnish me with daily delight; I know their value, and am in some measure, I hope, able to appreciate their utility. I am also happy to affirm that in the physical sciences, and especially that to which our attention is now directed, very much has been accomplished. Yet I may challenge the wisest philosopher to demonstrate, from unexceptionable principles, and by just argument, what will be the effect of one particle of matter in motion, meeting with another at rest, on the supposition that these two particles constituted all the *matter* in the universe. The fact of the communication of motion from one body to another is as inexplicable as the communication of divine influences. How, then, can the former be admitted with any face, while the latter is denied solely on the ground of its incomprehensibility? We know nothing of *force* any more than we do of *grace*, except by their effects. There are questions, doubts, perplexities, disputes, diversities of opinion, about the one as well as about the other. Ought we not, therefore, by a parity of reason to conclude, that there may be several true and highly useful propositions about the latter as well as about the former? Nay, I will venture to go farther, and affirm, that the preponderance of argument is in favour of the propositions of the theologian. For, while force, time, motion, &c. are avowedly constituent parts of a demonstrable science, and ought, therefore, to be presented in a full blaze of light, the obscure parts proposed for our assent in the Scriptures are *avowedly* mysterious. They are not exhibited to be perfectly understood, but to be believed. They *cannot* be explained without ceasing to be what they are: for the explanation of a mystery is, as Dr. Young has long ago remarked, its destruction.'

All this is very scientific, but what does it prove? the limits of human knowlege; nothing more: — it does not apply to the point on which the philosopher would bring his artillery

to bear. No Christian pretends to deny the incomprehensiblity of the Divine Nature, or the very limited extent of the human understanding. That the Deity exists (to use the language of Newton in his *Scholium generale*) "*more mininie humano, more minime corporeo, more nobis prorsus incognito,*" we all admit: but this concession does not reach the matters in debate respecting religion; since the question is not whether it be *possible* for a certain *threeism* (*da veniam verbo*) to exist in the Divine Essence consistently with Unity, but whether any declaration to this effect is to be found in the word of God? Yet it is curious to observe this philosopher, who quotes Dr. Young to prove that "the explanation of a mystery is its destruction," attempting in the second volume, p. 79., to explain or at least to give us an idea of the mystery of the Holy Trinity. 'In metaphysics we have many equal difficulties; and even in the spiritual part of our own nature. Thus, our soul has the three distinct faculties of understanding, memory, and will, proceeding in succession from each other; yet they are co-existent, and constitute not three souls, but one soul.' We may venture to ask, is this a parallel case, is this an illustration? Are the Father, the Son, and the Holy Spirit, analogous to the understanding, the memory, and the will of the human mind? We could put several other questions, but we are restrained by the nature of the subject; and, instead of pursuing it, we shall remark in general that Dr. G. does not distinguish between what is revealed and what is kept unrevealed in the word of God. That which is clearly revealed becomes a fact, and we believe it, as for instance the resurrection of the body: but the mode in which this is to be effected is *not* revealed, and therefore we can believe nothing about it.—Before we quit this letter, we must observe that its title, *Mysteries in Revealed Religion,* is a contradiction in terms. Mysteries may *attach* to revealed religion, but, as far as any point is *revealed,* it is so far *not* a *mystery.* Until the mystery of the parable of the sower was explained, the disciples could not comprehend it: but, as soon as our Lord made known this mystery of the kingdom of Heaven, it was no longer a mystery. As far as we are taught the things of the kingdom of God, so far we know them; where divine teaching ends, knowlege on this subject ends. What, then, is obtained by asserting that mysteries attach to revealed religion? Will this help us to settle any controversies? It is not by what the Scriptures *do not* unfold, but by what they *do* unfold, that we are to be guided; and therefore we can perceive no use to which Dr. G.'s profound science in this letter can be applied. Let us then proceed.

The ingenuity of the author in the letters *On the Genuineness and Authenticity of the Scriptures; on the Evidences deducible from*

Prophecy and Miracles; and on the Credibility of Human Test must strike the reader; and though we cannot pass them ov tirely without strictures, their general merit we do not h to acknowlege. Dr. G. is, we think, correct when he ob ' that, if we allow the genuineness of the books (of Scri to be a sufficient evidence of the common facts mentio them, the miraculous facts must be allowed also, from close connection with the common ones;' and we applau for refuting a very prevalent opinion, viz. that the arg from miracles diminishes in proportion as we recede fr apostolic times *: but it may admit of some doubt w he be strictly accurate in placing in the class of mirac death of Elijah, which appears to have been effected by powerful atmospheric agents which often display their d tive operations, especially in the mountainous regions of climates †; and we also strongly object to his attempt t the disputed passage in Josephus, in which this Jewish rian mentions our Saviour, into the service of Christ. If is of opinion that the passage is genuine, it was fair t his reasons for this conclusion to his young friend: (see pp. 168—170, note:) but he should not have with-hold forcible and (we conceive) irresistible arguments of Dr. L on the other side of the question. (Works, Vol. vii. p. seq. and p. 281.) Bp. Warburton calls the whole " forgery, and a very stupid one." The passage, indeed, abundantly too much; for if Josephus considered Jesu

---

* Indeed,' says Dr. G., ' it is only with regard to the facts in the Bible, that men ever talk of the daily diminution of cre Who complains of a decay of evidence in relation to the ac Alexander, Hannibal, Pompey, or Cæsar? How many fewe events recorded by Plutarch, or Polybius, or Livy, are believ (on account of a diminution of evidence,) than were belie Mr. Addison, or Lord Clarendon, or Geoffrey Chaucer?"

† As this subject is often misapprehended, let us turn to sage, 2 Kings, ii. 11. Here it is said that " Elijah went u whirlwind into heaven." The obvious meaning of these w that he was elevated by a whirlwind or tornado into the regio air. It will be said that mention is made of " a chariot of horses of fire:" but what idea can we have of such a phæno If we take this representation in connection with the whirlwi not allowable to suppose that this is an eastern mode of de the electric fluid which was blended with the tornado, which emitted from the clouds and now appeared as a column of fire along the ground? It is said that Elijah and Elisha were pa the storm; and, though the account is short and figurative, th of this storm is evident.

the Christ, or the expected Messiah of the Jews, he must have been a believer in Christ; and then he would not, surely, have dispatched the miraculous history of the Saviour of the world in one short paragraph.

The sceptical reasonings of Mr. Hume and others against the possibility of miracles, deduced from a view of the laws and course of nature, meet with a proper reply from the present philosophical advocate for Revelation. He very justly remarks that,

'If we consider things duly, we shall find that lifeless matter is utterly incapable of obeying any laws, or of being endued with any powers: and, therefore, what is usually called *the course of nature* can be nothing else than the arbitrary will and pleasure of God acting continually upon matter according to certain rules of uniformity, still bearing a relation to contingencies. So that it is as easy for the Supreme Being to alter what men think the course of nature, as to preserve it. Those effects, which are produced in the world regularly and indesinently, and which are usually termed the works of nature, prove the constant Providence of the Deity; those, on the contrary, which, upon any extraordinary occassion, are produced in such a manner as it is manifest could not have been either by human power, or by what is called chance, prove undeniably the immediate interposition of the Deity on that especial occasion. God, it must be recollected, is the governor of the *moral* as well as of the *physical* world; and, since the moral well-being of the universe is of more consequence than its physical order and regularity, it follows, obviously, that the laws conformably with which the material world seems generally to be regulated, are subservient and may occcasionally yield to the laws by which the moral world is governed.'

To the letter on *the Resurrection of Christ*, it is our duty to direct the attention of the reader, because it is well written, and much to the purpose. The same praise is merited by the general observations on the *early Diffusion of Christianity, and on the Purity and Excellence of the Scriptures*, in the subsequent letter; and want of room must be our excuse for withholding some extracts which we had marked for insertion. We cannot extend our encomiums in like manner to the letter on *the Inspiration of the Scriptures*; since Dr. G. does not appear to us to advert to the different contents of the Sacred Volume, and to discriminate, as the antient Jews evidently did, between the Law, and the Prophets, and the Hagiography, or the Holy Writings. The author is correct in saying 'that the notion of inspiration enters essentially into our ideas of a Revelation; so that to deny inspiration is tantamount to affirming that there is no revelation:' but is it necessary that those books should be inspired, (the books of Chronicles for instance,) which are professed copies from the Jewish registers, and in which no revelation is

made? The letter writer's notion of inspiration is, in our judgment, carried too far: but we must decline the laborious task of contesting all the matters at issue between us.

By way of supplement to the Evidences, the concluding letter of the first volume offers some pertinent replies to *plausible objections urged against the truth and divine authority of the Scriptures*; for which we should readily have thanked the author, had he not judged it necessary to vindicate the bloody extermination of the Canaanites, on the ground of its having been ordered by Jehovah. This difficulty can be obviated without so hopeless an effort: but, could it not, it would be better to suffer this subject to remain a difficulty, than to assign to the God of mercy the sanguinary and unfeeling conduct of the Jews towards the subdued Canaanites. Dr. Geddes's remarks on this head may not be reputed so orthodox as those of Dr. Gregory: but they are more satisfactory to a reflecting and feeling mind.

Having already adverted to the complexion of Dr. G.'s religious creed, we shall briefly notice the contents of the second volume, which is occupied in displaying the doctrines and duties of Christianity. To the latter subject he assigns only one letter, while ten are devoted to the former. In these ten, after a general view of Christian Doctrines, we meet with distinct essays on *the Depravity of Human Nature,—on the Atonement and Divinity of Christ,—on Conversion,—on the Influences of the Spirit,—on Justification by Faith,—on Providence,—on the Resurrection of the Body,—and on Eternal Existence after Death.* Here the philosophical advocate throws down the gauntlet to the Unitarians, and endeavours in various ways to provoke them to the contest. Indeed, with an evident design of irritating them, he remarks (Vol. ii. p. 78.) that, 'according to the Socinian theory and practice, the chief employment of ministers and "ambassadors of Christ" is to depreciate, as far as possible, the character of their Lord and King.' He laughs also at the Unitarian version of Heb. i. 8. "GOD is thy throne for ever and ever," by which, he says, 'God the Father is converted into *a chair of state*;' for he cannot give the Unitarians the credit of meaning, by the words "God is thy throne," God is the support of thy throne. He strenuously contends for the Divinity of Jesus Christ, and, in proof of this doctrine, quotes the passage in Isaiah which says that *Jehovah* was pierced; and he places this in conjunction with the parallel passage of the Evangelist, which tells us that they pierced *Jesus*: (Vol. ii. p. 82.) but, as 'he does not believe that the man Jesus was deified,' (p. 78.) though it was the man Jesus who was pierced on the cross, we suppose that the Unitarians will tell him that his theological

theological differ from his mathematical demonstrations. Be this as it may, we shall merely advert to the two subjects of *the resurrection of the body*, and *everlasting punishments*, discussed towards the end of this volume. With regard to the first, Dr. G. presents us with several pleasing and ingenious arguments; and though it may not be in his power to obviate all the difficulties which present themselves to persons who anxiously inquire "How can these things be?", it may nevertheless be gratifying to perceive the mode in which he combats those doubts which may probably arise even in serious minds:

'Objectors have advanced still farther, and urge that after death the body may not merely become insensible, inactive, and undergo corruption; but, farther, may experience dispersion of particles and union with other bodies. Thus the body of a dead man may be burnt (as were those of some primitive martyrs, by their enemies, in derision of the resurrection), its ashes scattered in the air, blown about by the wind, or exhaled into the atmosphere: or, after it is resolved into earthy or humid matter, it may be taken up by the vessels which supply plants with nutriment, and at length become constituent parts of the substance of those plants. How can particles thus dispersed half over the earth, or thus intimately combined with other bodies, be recalled from their state of dispersion, or separated from the bodies of which they have subsequently formed constituent parts, and re-united so as to form one body? Here, again, we may deprive the objection of all force, by contemplating processes of daily occurrence. Chemists can intermix several liquids of essentially different kinds in such manner, that the smallest sensible particle of the resulting liquid shall partake of all the constituent liquids; and then they can by analysis separate this compound substance into all the simple liquids of which it was composed. They can detect, separate, and measure, the several simple substances of which a certain compound natural mass shall be formed.—They can, for example, detect and measure the chromic acid, oxyd of iron, alumina, and silica, in a given mass of that natural substance *chromium ferri*; the respective quantities of acidulous water, thick brown oil, thin empyreumatic oil, charcoal, and gases, in any proposed portion of *guaiacum*; or the relative masses and relative weights of the azotic gas, oxygenous gas, aqueous vapour, and carbonic acid gas, in any given volume of *atmospheric air*: and all this, be it recollected, by means within the compass of *human* agents. Does the collecting together of the scattered particles of dead bodies, or the separation of them from other bodies with which they may have become combined, require skill or energy so much greater than the operations of art to which I have just been adverting, that we must pronounce them too difficult for the Creator of the world to perform? Is his knowledge so circumscribed that He cannot tell what becomes of every particle of every body He has created? Or cannot matchless knowledge, and unlimited power, know and accomplish *all* things, required by infinite wisdom, or promised by boundless love, as easily and successfully as a

chemist can ascertain or separate the various substances in a compound mass?"

How different were our sensations on the perusal of this and other similar passages in the 20th letter, from those which the arguments adduced in the 21st occasioned; in which Dr. G. tells us that he conceives that 'the declaration, "every one shall be salted with fire," implies that, as salt preserves from putrefaction flesh to which it is applied, so the unhappy victims of Divine justice shall be *salted* with *fire*, and, instead of being consumed by it, shall, in the wretched abodes to which they are consigned, *continue immortal in the midst of their flames!*" What a horrible thought! What a view of the Divine Government!—Human governments consider punishments as remedial: but the just and benevolent God of the Universe *chooses them for their own sake*, and perpetuates them to all eternity! If we allow this position, and add to it the fact that sinners are more numerous than the righteous, we shall be forced to this blasphemous conclusion that the final and predominant result of the Divine administration, and, particularly, of the Christian dispensation, is *misery*:—but what man out of Bedlam will cherish such a thought? When Dr. G. thinks again, he must surely abhor it. We have known some Calvinistic divines whose eloquence seemed to glow with unusual fervor when they were enlarging on the everlasting punishments of the damned: but we did not expect to encounter a philosopher who would step forwards to give sanction to such infernal oratory.

We are sorry that we cannot be more complimentary, because Dr. G. is a man of science, learning, and genius; and, having volunteered the defence of revelation, his good intentions disposed us to be partial to him: but, unfortunately, we found his mind too much warped by what appears to us to be a narrow system: his Defence is calculated rather for a sect than for all persuasions: it will, in many parts, disgust the rational Christian; while we need not add that, though it be the production of a philosopher, it is not adapted to the meridian of philosophical infidelity.

*** Since the above was written, a second edition of this work has been laid before us, corrected, and somewhat augmented. Little alterations of and additions to the text will be found; and, at the bottom of the page, notes of some length are subjoined. The preface is enlarged by a paragraph expressive of Dr. G.'s high satisfaction at the success of his labours.

ART-

ART. IV. *General View of the Agriculture and Minerals of Derbyshire*; with Observations on the Means of their Improvement. Drawn up for the Consideration of the Board of Agriculture and Internal Improvement. Vol. I. Containing a full Account of the Surface, Hills, Valleys, Rivers, Rocks, Caverns, Strata, Soils, Minerals, Mines, Collieries, Mining Processes, &c. &c. Together with some Account of the recent Discoveries respecting the Stratification of England; and a Theory of Faultes and denudated Strata, applicable to Mineral Surveying and Mining. Illustrated by Five Coloured Maps, and Sections of Strata. By John Farey, Senior, Mineral Surveyor, of Upper Crown Street, Westminster. 8vo. pp. 580. 1l. 1s. Boards. Nicol and Son, &c. 1811.

In the first section of this first volume and *chapter*, Mr. Farey describes the situation, extent, and boundaries of Derbyshire; enumerating its principal ridges of hills, its valleys, rocks, and caverns, and the more remarkable subsidences of its strata. The extreme length of this interesting county he states at fifty-six miles and a half; its greatest breadth, in a direct line, at thirty-three miles; and its contents at nine hundred and seventy-two square miles, or six hundred and twenty-two thousand and eighty statute acres. Owing to its inland position, it has on its borders not fewer than eight places at which three counties meet in one point. Although the ruggedness of its surface may have been exaggerated by wonder-loving travellers, it is admitted that its flattest portions exhibit an easy but prolonged ascent to the north-west. The list of the more considerable ridges amounts to forty-one. Nearly seven hundred hills and eminences are particularized in the *reduced* map prefixed to the present volume; and the alphabetical list of these hills, and of their prevailing strata, occupies forty-six pages, while that of the narrow valleys, rocks, caverns, &c. is comprized in ten. The latter, however, are only selected as specimens, various places presenting similar dales, 'and,' adds the author, 'not less striking than many of the above, and which I have visited, but don't happen to have learnt their particular names.' As we are warned, in the same paragraph, of the great importance of framing catalogues of valleys, it is not without surprize that we find a gentleman of Mr. Farey's patient habits shrinking from the easy task of asking and noting the names of such as occurred to his own observation.

The second section comprizes the civil and ecclesiastical divisions of the county, and a few remarks to which they obviously give rise:

'In the parts of the county where the large parishes are situate (*situated*) the number of Dissenting and Methodist Meeting Houses seem (*seems*) very numerous (*great*,) and (*they*) are appropriated to most,

most, if not all, of the prevailing religious sects: even the emissaries o Johanna Southcote have obtained a hearing at Ashover. The Chapel of the Methodists seem the most rapidly increasing in the manufac turing districts of this and the adjoining counties. At the time whe the very large districts which I have alluded to were laid out as singl parishes, it is to be presumed, that the population was very low, an most of the land unproductive commons and moors, the value of th lands being then proportionally small, but since so large a portio of the lands have been brought under productive cultivatio and populous villages of manufacturers have arisen, far exceedin many of the smaller parishes in their number of inhabitants, and fa removed from the Church, or any of the Chapels of Ease belongin to the over-grown parish to which they belong, a division of suc parishes has certainly been wanted, as well as larger and more com modious buildings than the Chapels of Ease are, in numerous in stances; to the erection of which the increased value of the tythe as well as of the lands, ought perhaps to have contributed. It h been the opinion of several intelligent gentlemen of such district with whom I have conversed, though far from being favourers o Dissenters from the National Church, that the morals of the lowe class among them would have suffered very materially from th cause, but for the exertions of the Dissenting and Methodist preach ers among them, and (they) have related to me several instanc of visible improvements in the sobriety and orderly conduct of the labourers in general, since the Chapels, which every where meet th eye of the traveller in such districts, were erected.'

The third section relates entirely to the climate. — Notwithstanding the alleged Alpine rigours of the hilly parts of Derbyshire, Mr. Farey, in his long *sojournments* in the Peak-Hundred neither saw nor heard any of those 'violent storms,' or 'torrents of rain,' which figure so gratuitously in Guides and books of travels. He admits, however, that the temperature of the Peaks is somewhat lower than that of the other Hundreds; and that the spring in the higher grounds is usually later, by ten days, or a fortnight, than in the southern portions of the county. Under the article *climate*, we expected to have met with a meteorological journal for a series of years: but no register of the barometer or thermometer could, it seems, be procured, although the former instrument is now common among the farmers. The yearly quantity of rain at Chatsworth, from 176 to 1810, both inclusive, is set down from the observations of the gardener at that place, according to the daily indications of an excellent rain-gage. The total depth of rain and melted snow, during this period, somewhat exceeded 119 feet; the annual average being 28.411 inches, the greatest annual depth (in 1768) 39.919 inches *, and the least (in 1780,) 19.4

* The number of inches in 1804 is set down in the table at 47.9[illegible] which, as we may infer from the context, is a typographical error. inche

inches. The average number of rainy days in each year was 120, the greatest number (in 1782) being 166, and the smallest (in 1766) 71. The fewest rainy days appear to have occurred in March, and the greatest number in October. From a comparison of the daily returns during the whole period, it results that, in the course of fifty years, the number of humid days has materially increased, while the sum of rain has considerably diminished.

Sections IV. and V., which treat of the soil and strata, are prefaced by a sketch of the author's favourite notions of stratification, and particularly of the series of British strata, as indicated by the ingenious Mr. Smith of Mitford, near Bath. Under the gravels and alluvial depositions, are placed the *London Clay*, *Blackheath Sand*, *Upper or Flinty Chalk*, *Lower or Hard Chalk*, *Chalk Marl*, *Aylesbury Lime-stone*, *Sand and Clays*, including the *Sussex Marble*, *Woburn Sand*, containing *Fuller's Earth*, *Clunch Clay*, *Bedford Lime-stone*, *Thick Clay*, *Barnack Rag-stone*, *Lime-stone*, and *Grey Slate of Colly Weston*, &c., *Sand Stratum*, *Bath Free-stone*, *Maidwell Lime-stone*, *Lias Clay*, and *Sand*. That the members of this series have the continuous and extensive range assigned to them by Mr. Smith, and his pupil Mr. Farey, we much doubt: but we recommend the investigation of the subject to such of our readers as enjoy the opportunities of time and place, and take an active part in scrutinizing the geological structure of their country.

Mr. Farey next states, at considerable length, his doctrine of the dislocation and denudation of strata, but with too constant a reference to his neat and ingenious plates to be distinctly intelligible without them. The different cases, however, which he proposes and explains, are well deserving of the attention of all who are interested in the concerns of mining.

The gravelly and water-borne soil, which occupies, in larger or smaller patches, the surface of almost every stratum, consists, in some parts, of alluvial sand, rounded quartz, and other siliceous pebbles, to the depth of two or three hundred yards; while in others it is concreted into a soft gravel rock, and is irregularly stratified. 'In all my examination of this immense mass of gravel,' observes the author, 'except on the very surface, I did not perceive a single pebble which belonged to the neighbouring strata, or to any strata which I have seen in England!' Along the banks of the principal rivers, a considerable loamy sediment has accumulated above the gravel, and produces excellent meadows. In some other situations, the gravel, both of the hills and the valleys, is so much intermingled with clay and marl as to require draining, and produces cold and rather poor land. Besides 77,000 acres of gravel surface in

in Derbyshire, many small insulated patches of the same m terial occur, which are deposited indiscriminately on *all strat* and in almost all situations; thus confuting the limited noti that gravel and sand are peculiar to the Flœtz Trapp Formati of the Wernerian School.

As to the uppermost regular stratum in Derbyshire, however, that which is usually called *Red Marl, Red Earth, Red Groun* &c. it is of unequal, and often of very great thickness; and r markable for the anomalous masses which occur within its pr cincts, as *gypsum, sienite, slate, rock salt, grit-stone, sand,* &c. Th bed is, for the most part, horizontal; bounded on the north l what Mr. Farey terms the *Great Derbyshire Fault*, and, in sever places, bearing on its surface some of the best land in th county: but, in general, it is rather disposed to coldness an tenacity, and in some parts will amply repay the trouble o drainage. This red marl occupies about 81,000 acres of th surface; being the third soil in the county, in point of exten

The yellow or magnesian lime-stone strata next succee preserving a remarkably regular plane, with a gentle dip t the east; and forming, altogether, a thickness of at least hundred yards. Their predominant colour is a bright yellow which passes, by various intermediate shadings, to very lig straw colour and white. Towards the bottom of this serie have been discovered several beds of compact blue lime-ston merged in blue clay, and abounding in anomiæ and oth shells. The superficial extent of the magnesian lime-stone Derbyshire is stated at nearly 21,600 acres. 'The soil ma by the yellow lime-stone strata is generally of a medium qu lity and degree of tenacity; it is much improved, either by th Peak lime, where the canals admit of its being applied, or l lime from the blue beds near the bottom of this series. It seem best adapted for arable land, on account of its proneness shar-grass, pry-grass, or spiked fescue (*festuca pinnata*), light green sharp grass, which scarcely any thing (animal) w eat, which soon prevails when the yellow lime-stone lands a laid down to grass.'

In the strata commonly termed *Coal Measures*, are includ seams of coal, which are separated by the common argillaceo matters, containing vegetable impressions, and about twenty gr stone rocks, some of which are of great thickness. The co seams are remarkable for their variable distances from each oth in different collieries, and for the gradations of hard co into soft, and soft into hard. The coal-floors in the series a either clay, somewhat indurated, and called *clunch, seat-earth scud*, &c. or the *crowstone*, or *ganister*, which though admirab for road-making, yet, when pounded fine, and kneaded wi

wate

water, has all the properties of fire-clay, and may be manufactured into excellent crucibles. All the sand-stones of this extensive coal formation, with the exception of two, have their siliceous grains rather small, abound in minute spangles of mica, and have an argillaceous cement.

The *first Grit-rock*, or *Millstone-grit*, is particularly brought into view:

'In order to point out a material error into which the late ingenious Mr. John Whitehurst was led, owing to his not having noticed the coarseness of the third grit-rock, in stating, in his "Inquiry concerning the Earth," in several places in both his editions, that coal is never found under the coarse or mill-stone grit, which seems true (as far as workable seams are concerned) of the first or lowest regular grit-rock in Derbyshire, but not of the third rock, because three workable seams of coals often occur beneath this third rock; and it was owing, as I suppose, to a confused account which he received of a *fault*, ranging east and west, which was proved on Baslow Common, in driving up the level to the colliery formerly worked in Chatsworth Old Park (for I believe Mr. Whitehurst to have been a man of the strictest veracity), that he describes a *great fault* as crossing this colliery from south to north, and gives a section of the same in his fourth plate, second edition, which has no existence, as I have satisfied myself, by inquiry of the colliers last employed there, and by a careful examination of the ground, with the noble owner's plans in my hand, with which I was favoured by Mr. Knowlton, his agent, in order to prepare a more correct section of the strata in this place, which at a future opportunity I shall publish, only further remarking in this place, that what Mr. Whitehurst describes as the first grit-rock in the New Plantation, is in reality the third grit-rock, not less coarse both in its grain or particles of silex than the first rock, and under which the first and second-grit, and the first and second coal shales lay (lie), as any one may satisfy himself, by a comparison of the measures in Baslow colliery, now in work on the north side of the Old Park.'

As the soil in the Derbyshire coal-districts generally inclines much to clay, it is, without draining and liming, far from fertile. The coals have been divided into three sorts, namely, the *hard* or *stone*, the *soft* or *bright*, (both of which burn to a white ash,) and the *caking*, or *crozling*, which usually burns to a red ash. On most of the considerable collieries, steam-engines have been erected for raising the water; and smaller engines, called *Wimseys*, for drawing the coals out of the pits. Argillaceous iron-stone, which frequently assumes the form of flat balls, and lumps of iron pyrites, called *brasses*, occur in several of the workings.—The coal-strata in Derbyshire extend under 190,000 acres of its surface. Besides the particulars which we have stated concerning them, various others, scarcely less interesting, but which we cannot detail, will be found in the present publication; and we are led to expect a more complete

plete analysis of their constitution in the author's projected work on the mineral history of the county.

The stratum which is here demonstrated the *First Mill-stone* or *Grit-rock*, is remarkable for its thickness and hardness; and it gives rise to the greater part of the siliceous rock-scenery in Derbyshire, and the adjacent parts of Staffordshire, Cheshire and Yorkshire. 'In several places, this rock has been proved to be 120 yards thick, composed, for the greater part, of a very coarse-grained white, yellowish, or reddish free-stone, which is easily worked, considering the extreme hardness of its particles, and its great durability, which appears to me superior to that of any free-stone which I have seen used in England. What are known all over England by the name of *Peak Mill stones*, are from this stratum,' &c. — From the upper stratula of the same bed are formed excellent flags, and even slates for roofing.

The great shale-stratum often falls, by decomposition, into clay, or strong loam, on the surface; so as to form, where too much wet does not prevent, a very productive soil. In some instances, however, its flakes remain for ages in the ground, retaining the size of a half-crown, or penny-piece, and rendering the soil cold and unfruitful. The general thickness of this stratum is from 150 to 170 yards. In some places, it consists entirely of black or brown shale, in very thin laminæ: but, in others, it contains accidental beds of fine-grained siliceous free stone, full of minute plates of mica, and stained with various concentric rings of red and yellow; while in others it includes great masses and accidental beds of dark blue and black lime stone, some of which have the property of setting in water.—If Mr. Farey's scales be correct, the parts of the county, which are occupied by the first grit-rock and lime-stone shale, amount to 160,500 acres.

Three strata of lime-stone and three of *toad-stone* alternate with one another, and present very various degrees of thickness. The principal mineral veins are supposed to extend through this lime-stone series, though not without interruption, as they are rarely known to break completely through the toad-stone rocks.

'Sometimes the vein-stuff is found perfectly divided vertically throughout, and the surfaces polished; and these are called *Slicken sides* * or Cracking-whole, which usually are ribbed or slightly fluted horizontally: the appearances are very similar to those of faults, but extraneous matters do not usually accompany them, the sides being mostly in very close contact; and often after one side is removed, as

* See Sowerby's "British Mineralogy," plate 392., page 167.

as to give room *, especially if the surface be pecked or broken, large slapits, spels, or fragments, fly off, sometimes with loud explosions, and continue so to do for some days or longer, until the gate or passage in such vein is greatly enlarged thereby: this is the case in Gang Mine, in Cromford, where the hard first toad-stone also, in the gates and shafts, thus spels off, until they want timbering, often, to support the roof and sides. I could not learn, that the slickensides in the mines about Eyam explode now, on mere scratching, as they were said to do in the late Mr. Whitehurst's time. I have noticed nine instances of mines with slickensides in them.'

Of the lime-stones to which we have alluded, the first is often dark-coloured, or black; gives a fetid odour, when struck with the hammer; and contains, in several places, large anomiæ, and multitudes of entrochi, madrepores, and other organic remains. Layers of black chert nodules often occur near its surface. In some fewer instances, large beds of the stone itself appear to be converted or transformed into white chert, called *china-stone*; considerable quantities of which are sent to the Staffordshire potteries, and to the flint mills. Several of the beds of the second lime-stone rock contain magnesia. Its superficial layers seem in part to be converted into chert; and accidental masses of china-stone are scattered through its beds. The third, which is also characterized by layers of chert nodules, and by anomiæ, entrochi, madrepores, &c., is still more remarkable for containing anomalous masses of toad-stone. The toad-stones, which vary both in aspect and in thickness, in the course of the same stratum, seem to include most of the members of the trapp series, and undergo the same sort of decomposition. According to the graduated map, the three upper lime-stones and the three toadstones occupy very nearly 51,500 acres.

The fourth lime-stone rock, of which the surface within the county is equivalent to 40,500 acres, though regularly stratified, exhibits, for the most part, beds of considerable thickness, and has the properties of a free-stone. Some small entrochi, with numerous anomiæ, and other shells and organic remains, are dispersed through its mass. In some of its large fissures is found very beautiful white china-clay.

The valleys and low grounds very rarely produce peat-earth; a circumstance which the author, strangely enough, ascribes to the 'small quantity of sand' in the county. In the more elevated districts, immense beds of peat rest on the shale, or grit-stones of coal-fields.

'* For slickensides do not form the "sides of *cavities*," as Dr. Millar seems to represent, in Williams's Min. King. 2d Edit. ii. 449.'

Mr. Farey's

Mr. Farey's observations on the various mining operations which are carried on within the range of his survey, including the working of coal and lime-stone, may furnish some useful hints to those who are more immediately connected with such processes and manipulations: but they cannot be submitted to our readers in an abridged form, without evidently detracting from their value. We must not, however, in passing over this part of the work before us, conceal our surprize that, in a district of England so near to Birmingham, and in which so many steam-engines are employed, those on the construction of Watt and Boulton should not have a decided preference. The author seems to insinuate that they are not suited to the exigencies of Derbyshire mining: but this is vague and unsatisfactory; and we should be glad to be informed of the circumstances in which they may not be advantageously substituted for the old-fashioned and less perfect machinery which has been allowed to remain.

In treating of the lead-mines, the reporter indulges in some very seasonable strictures on the mining-laws, which are now more curious than equitable. Even in those cases in which their strict interpretation is no longer enforced, their ostensible form is tenaciously observed:

'The mining-laws, which, previous to this time, had required a working *stowse*, and its actual use, at least once in three weeks, in drawing ore on each meer of ground, became now relaxed, so far as to allow models of stowses, or small *sham*-drawing apparatus, made of thin laths of wood, which the bar-master provided, to be used as the means of keeping possession of all the meers but one, on a consolidated mine: a custom which prevails to the present day, and is so rigidly enforced that a mine on which large steam-engines and powerful horse-gins, and other expensive apparatus, may have long been used, is not held to be legally occupied, unless one of these pigmy memorials of the primitive mode of drawing ore, is constantly kept "in sight of all men," as the laws express it, on or within a certain distance of the drawing-shaft (where a stowse worked by men is not used), and others on each of the meers of ground, or lengths of 9 yards, of which the mine consists.

'The laws of the King's field punish by fines all such persons as are detected in removing or destroying the bar-master's stowse, though placed across the middle of a cultivated field, a common, or on the fence-wall next a public road, as is very commonly the case: but the noble horse and the sturdy ox, disregarding such puny representatives of property and authority, continually tread them to pieces, while travellers and strangers, the servants of gentlemen who are travelling, in particular, as commonly bear them off from the road, as curious memorials of the folly or superstition of the inhabitants. The bar-master furnishes such models, which to be effective must have no nails used in their structure, but be pinned together with wood, according

according to the state of actual stowses, when these were first introduced as their representatives, for each of which he charges a small sum, and the miners are obliged to be very particular, at short intervals, to replace all such of their possession-stowses as are broken or gone.'

In many cases, a tythe was originally levied on lead-ore, on the erroneous geological principle that it grew and was reproduced in the mine. At Wirksworth, one-fortieth of the saleable ore was accepted by the clergyman, and has continued ever since to be the proportion paid in that parish; while in other places any legal claim to such tythe has been successfully resisted.

The other mineral substances, which are worked with more or less benefit to their respective owners, are iron, the ores of zinc, manganese, marble free-stone, slate, grind-stones, quartz-crystals, sulphur, &c. &c.

Under the title of *Water*, in the sixth and last section, the author traces the courses of the principal rivers and streams, and the strata which they traverse, with a degree of minuteness that is utterly incompatible with the limited space which we can allot either to condensed statements or to partial quotations.—Within the county are no pieces of water that can with propriety be called *lakes:* but it contains many antient pools, or meers, which are supposed to be partly artificial, and which are seldom destitute of water. Reservoirs, and large mill and fish-ponds, are also not uncommon; and the soil abounds in springs of various qualities and descriptions.

From the great quantity of important matters of fact which Mr. Farey has contrived to press into his Report, it may perhaps be alleged that we have touched on its contents with a superficial hand. Judicious and accurate views of the mineralogy of any given portion of British territory have, no doubt, the strongest claims on the attention of the British public: but, if they are exhibited in the form of local catalogues, they are, from their very nature, refractory to the influence of our vocation. Continuous pages of mere names, or of references to plates, when, as in the present case, they are the results of much laborious and scientific investigation, can scarcely be too highly appreciated: but they fall not within the province of literary criticism; and while they necessarily relieve us from the irksome task of crowding our pages with lists and cyphers, they impose on us the more easy and grateful office of merely alluding to the distribution and general merits of the scheme of which they make a part. Mr. Farey likewise descants with more confidence than we are inclined to display on the great extent of particular strata, as if he scented their identity

identity across the island with the utmost ease; and we not altogether satisfied of the existence of his great *fa* which some observers have treated as chimerical. On th points, we are at least desirous of suspending our judgme until they have been more maturely weighed. Another co sideration, namely, the prospect of meeting again with t industrious reporter, and on the same ground, has also indu us to compress our account of the present volume.

We are repeatedly reminded that the respectable Boa under whose auspices the agricultural reports are drawn for the public inspection, does not hold itself responsible the statements of its reporters: but it surely cannot be ave to recommend a *top-dressing* to compositions which are pu lished by its own appointment. Some humble literary frie might easily correct all flagrant violations of the ordinary ru of grammar, and new-model or refit every cumbersome mangled sentence. Mr. Farey may be an excellent mine surveyor, and yet a novice in the art of writing: but it is n we apprehend, very creditable to his employers, or to national taste, to suffer his valuable communications to deformed not only by a grievous list of literal errors, but lame orthography, false punctuation, the most glaring disc between noun and verb, and sentences of unmeasured leng or singular infelicity of structure. The integrity of his mean could not have been affected by amending such expressions *issolated, irridescent, Ludus Helmontia, expect* for *suspect, one the most curious and important phænomenon, cements together and p serve them, the general principles*, &c. *has been, from which ori nates all the ridges and hills, some parts of that parish is, the s. face*, &c. *are, scythestone are made, the infusible nature*, &c. *ha been mentioned, the vein-stuff are mentioned*, &c. &c. In qu of a dreary period, we have not far to travel; since the secc paragraph of the preface furnishes us with this notable specim in addition to the paragraph which we have quoted in p. 155.

'When the whole county, and its environs, had been minut gone over, (though some of the mineral observations in the coal ' tricts were yet unfinished, p. 162.) and when some progress had b made in collating and arranging my voluminous materials; the co deration of the long period which must still intervene, before my tended *Mineral History*, and large *Map* of the District could be re for publication, and the impatience of many to possess an abstr at least, of the materials collected, led to a further arrangement in Spring of 1810, with the President of the Board of Agriculture, incorporating what appeared of the most general and useful nat respecting the stratification and mineral concerns of Derbysh into the first chapter of my Report to the Board; and as the prin plan prescribed by the Board to their county reporters, for the

of uniformity in the arrangement of the subjects in their several Reports, contained sections and heads in this chapter for most of the subjects, the same has as much as possible been followed in preparing this first chapter; which proving, when completed, of the full size for a volume, the Board, in order to prevent the delay which would attend the completing of the whole Report, referred this for examination, and ordered it for immediate printing, and for separate sale: conceiving, that thus, this and the succeeding volume should together furnish the usual information, on the Agriculture and Rural Affairs of Derbyshire, while the present volume, by itself, might serve to other classes of readers, as the first of the series of MINERAL COUNTY REPORTS, which the Board contemplated on its original institution in 1793, and have never lost sight of during the long period that they have been almost exclusively occupied on the Agricultural Reports, as of primary importance, the near completion of which now renders it desirable, that a specimen of what may be expected from a general research into our *mineral treasures*, and the arts and manufactures connected therewith, should be submitted to the public, for consideration and further improvements, either respecting the arrangement, or the matter of such Reports.'

Many others might be quoted, which, though not equally prolonged, are more disjointed and unhinged.

In his occasional marginal notes, the author dissents from some of the Wernerian dogmas, and adverts to some mis-statements in the recent edition of Williams's Mineral Kingdom.

ART. V. *The Pleasures of Human Life*, a Poem; by Anna Jane Vardill. 4to. pp. 100. 15s. Boards. Longman and Co. 1812.

'THE Pleasures of Human Life!' an alluring title, but somewhat indistinct. "*Dolus latet in generalibus*" is, we fear, an adage applicable in the strictest manner to the said 'Pleasures.' They are, indeed, not only deceitful, but despicable, on too many occasions. How then does Miss Anna Jane Vardill succeed in recommending that which Solomon long ago denounced as "Vanity of vanities?" She does *not*, in fact, recommend these "airy nothings;" and her title is a misnomer. The *real* pleasures of human life, not alas! the imaginary, appear in her description (as they have done in all others, from the days of the Jewish King to those of the latest moral philosopher,) invested with the character of every social virtue; attended by charity through their mortal progress; and harbingered by piety in their approach to Heaven. How does our female moralist execute this description in verse?

'Pleasure! in Fancy's eye serenely clear,
Life's bright horizon, ever new and near,

Whene'er we gaze, thy canopy ascends;
Where-e'er we tread, thy ample round extends!
But fairest, widest, when the sov'reign ray
Of sun-bright Reason wins its equal way;
When soft and clear, unvex'd by ruffian gales,
The pure cerulean tint of love prevails:
Then if a cloud the bright expanse invades,
It teems with blessings for the earth it shades!
Not when gay Childhood's morning vapour plays,
Or fierce Ambition spreads its noontide blaze;
Or, big with storms and death, the sullen cloud
Of Vice, advancing, rolls its sable shroud:
These, these shall pass away!—while pure and bright
Religion triumphs in eternal light,
Till the thin shades of brief existence fall,
And Pleasure's cloudless heav'n encircles all!'

When, however, the fair writer enters into an examina of different human systems of 'Pleasure,' she makes sad v with the *summum bonum* of the antients:

'*Dull* Epicurus kiss'd his *flow'ry* chain.'—P. 55.

On this most *judicious* character of Epicurus, Miss V. rema (in her notes, p. 94.) 'This philosopher propagated very *nar* ideas of pleasure, although he considered it the chief goo man.' In the next page she observes, 'Even Epicurus s "To live pleasantly, we must live honestly."' Now, w we add to such an injunction the simple circumstance Epicurus placed his chief good in *mental* pleasure, and that unworthy followers threw that discredit on his name which so little deserved, we must, per-force, reckon Miss Va among that numerous class of *modern philosophers* who ra misrepresent the tenets of their predecessors.

Occasionally, also, we are compelled to censure the poet expression of this lady:

'But Pain, dire fiend! the rose of Beauty ey'd,
Seiz'd its soft stem, and crush'd its early pride!
The victim smil'd, *thro' rents by anguish made:*
Her soul came forth in purer light array'd;' &c.—P. 83.

"And the disdainful soul came rushing through the wound;"
Dryden's Vir

not through 'a *rent*, made by anguish.'

We meet with too many instances of that licence whic so common among the bardlings of the day, namely, custom of throwing the accent of the substantive back on preceding adjective; the former being, from this circumstan happily enough intitled "*the noun enclitic.*" For example:

'Till, in her *soft* eye,' &c.—P. 9.

'On him whose *fond* heart,' &c.—P. 11.

'

'She weaves her *light* cage,' &c.—P. 11.
'Or tempts his *parch'd* lip,' &c.—P. 12.
'To cheer the *long* eve,' &c.—P. 17.
'Thrice on its *stiff* hinge,' &c.—P. 19.
'Youth's *bright* eyes linger,' &c.—P. 49.
'When *rent* earth trembles,' &c.—P. 60.

ıving arrived at another "*rent*," we shall close our list enclitics, and proceed to point out sundry blemishes in Miss ırdill's poetry, of a different description.

'Snatch the Promethĕan spark from Glory's shrine!'—P. 26.

ometheus (who, by the way, was the first *Master of Arts* record,—see the play of Æschylus,) would not have disvered much of his own Promethēan fire in this passage: Miss V. may plead some authorities in our language this false quantity; and we must allow her the praise having set right the pronunciation of one classical name, ıich the usage of our English poets has for many years corpted. In Dryden's *Religio Laici*, we have this expression:

"Not e'en the Stagȳrite," &c.;—

Pope uses the word with the same quantity; not to mention ıerd of minor writers. Still, our present fair author is correct her title of Aristotle:

'Stagīra's Sage.'—

however, a Lady may be excused for a few metrical errors, pecially in classical names, we are not equally disposed to parn the various examples of bad taste which occur in the present lume. The "pretty pathos" of one child strewing the grave another with 'Summer's earliest flowers,' though *unconscious his death*, while his dog sits beside her '*with plaintive moan*,' ee pages 10. and 11.) is too Della Cruscan for our taste; and e grand indistinctness of the following image is too sublime r our conception:

'Round Glory's base *an envious torrent yells!*'—P. 15.
'*Still flames eternal riot in thy veins!*'—P. 20.

another of those *fine* passages, in which the idea swells yond our grasp, and the propriety of the expression eludes ır discernment. We could multiply similar instances of mbast: but we forbear; and we assure the fair author that, we had not discovered in her poem very considerable proıise, we should not have given our readers or ourselves the ouble of pointing out those errors of judgment, or, it may e, imperfections arising from haste and carelessness of comosition, which occasionally disfigure it. If Miss Vardill will ke much more pains, ere she publishes, in the indispensible

work of correction, let her write in the first instance as qu as she chuses; although we could offer a still better, th a still less palatable, piece of advice, and say, let her not put pen to paper, till she has clearly arranged her tho in the silent workings of the mind, and has more than examined every mode of expression which does not itself on her choice immediately as intuitively just and pr Should this young lady, who really seems to possess abilities, and who ought therefore to be eminently d adopt these suggestions, and make them practically her we have no doubt that she will hereafter increase the al numerous catalogue of distinguished English female wr We have great pleasure in being able to justify this favou opinion by such passages as the subjoined:

'Fond man!—ere Conquest bids thy laurels grow,
Time, wintry Time, shall strew thy path with snow!
When ripe in age, and rich in long-sought praise,
Thy soul demands the home of early days,
It rests not here!—the stranger's axe has laid
Low in forgotten dust thy best-loved shade!
Where the glad reaper tuned his noon-tide song,
The Bittern moans neglected swamps among;
The stream, whose mirror lured thy infant eyes,
Choak'd with dank weeds, a reptile's food supplies:
Yon grey stones scatter'd o'er the path-worn green,
Tell where the cottage of thy sires has been!
For thee no home unfolds its social gate,
No father's smiles, no mother's blessings wait!
The eye where rapture borrow'd light from thine,
The heart which hid thee in its inmost shrine,
Lies in yon grass-green mound! but she whose smile
Blest thy night's dream, and sooth'd thy morning's toil,
Perhaps, still ling'ring in her native vale,
Chides thy slow ship, and doubts the fav'ring gale:
Perhaps for thee those gleaming embers burn
To cheer the long eve of thy late return.—
See! through yon casement still a taper shines,
Where yet the oft-remember'd ivy twines!
Steal o'er the woodbined fence with cautious feet,
In whispers soft the panting listener greet—
Who meets thee there?—a widow'd mourner's breast
Lulls by that glimmering hearth her babe to rest!
Slow from thy grasp her wither'd hand removes,
And clasps the famish'd pledge of other loves!
Detested pledge!—a faithless rival's guile
Marks it smooth brow, and lends its cherub smile—
Yet of lost bliss her ling'ring glances speak,
Still hopes remember'd flush her meagre cheek.
"Ah! why (she whispers) why thy long delay,
When Love rebuked and Honour mourn'd thy stay?

T

Why the low roof of meek Content disdain,
And barter peace for treasures heap'd in vain?" '

It cannot be necessary for us, after what we have said, to point out some obvious failures in the expression of the foregoing lines: while the design and spirit of the whole encourage us to hope that here is youthful genius which may rise into mature taste.

The picture of the slave of Pleasure waking to vain remorse has no weak moral effect; and the conclusion, though certainly overcharged, is too vigorous to be passed unnoticed:

' But, Vice! on thee no fancied scourge descends,
When the brief dream of syren Pleasure ends!
Unbar the dungeon—brave its murky gloom—
View the gaunt felon in his living tomb!
Scarce thro' the ten-fold grate a day-beam creeps
To shew where Shame its sullen vigil keeps.
Fit cell for murder!—on those moss-grown stones,
Stretch'd by its sire, a famish'd infant moans;
Lifts to his meagre breast its hollow eyes,
Shrinks from his scowl, and, hid in darkness, dies.
Die, little wretch! ere yet thy sorrows live!
Take the last boon thy helpless sire can give!
He smiles,—dread smile! and sees with transport dire
Thy last, last spark of ling'ring life retire—
No midnight stab thy envied breast shall feel
From Scorn's cold hand, and Hatred's venom'd steel:
No venal syren shall those lips defile,
Rob thy fond heart, or dig thy grave and smile!
Sleep sweet as thine thy sire shall never know,
Such peace, long peace! no opiate drugs bestow!
He lov'd thee once; and smiling Virtue shone
Bright in his breast, imperial Honour's throne;
A Wilmot's wit, a Stanhope's graces twin'd
With flow'rs the pillars of his attic mind,
Till Pleasure reign'd—and, sinking in her snare,
Repentance heap'd its scorpions on Despair!
Now on life's brink th' awaken'd victim stands,
Strikes his void breast, and clasps his bloody hands—
Hark!—'tis the scaffold's clang—the knell has rung;
He dies, a curse yet glowing on his tongue.'

The last line has a needless horror about it, which good taste and good feeling should alike reject.

We now turn to the second Canto, in which the virtue and the happiness peculiar to Christianity are described with much truth and beauty: but we can only select some detached passages from other branches of the subject. The parts which relate to religion would suffer by mutilation.

We were interested in a lady's solution of the following problem:

'What mystic charm the waken'd heart assails
When the fair face its silent pow'r unveils;
Is it the glossy curl?—the lip's perfume?
The eye's mild light?—the cheek's unbidden bloom?
All these are vulgar gifts — yon peach's side
Mocks the smooth cheek, and shames it vermil pride;
The ripe lip vies not with the breath of morn,
As balmy dews the scarlet weed adorn:
But in the mirror of the beauteous whole,
Shines the bright reflex of a spotless soul;
Health, the bland order of the earthly frame,
And Peace, celestial Order's best-lov'd name.'

We are not satisfied with the *philosophy* of this notion: but the superior charm of virtue is well painted in the lines subjoined:

'When o'er her hero's wound Sybilla bent,
Health to her lips its softest balsam lent;
When Dian's breath expiring virtue fann'd,
Peace gave its sceptre to her gentle hand.
In Mary's smile sublimer beauty dwelt,
While William's clouded soul its sunbeam felt,
Than when, ador'd on Gallia's silken throne,
In bridal pomp a fairer Mary shone.'

The allusions throughout the poem are explained in some short and generally sensible notes.

We conclude our extracts with the following verses, in which proper thoughts are simply and yet strongly expressed. This should be the chosen style of the fair author; let her always endeavour to write as well as in these six lines, and we will venture to augur her success:

'Unfading wreaths the priest of Science crown,
When Grandeur's columns fall forgotten down!
Newton! thy glory thron'd in light shall live,
While suns reveal'd by thee their radiance give!
As long, blest Locke! thy name shall dwell enshrin'd
In thine own temple, Man's immortal mind!'

The volume is handsomely printed, and dedicated to the Princess Charlotte of Wales; whose name we are glad to see prefixed in patronage of so respectable a publication.

ART. VI. *Travels through Denmark and Sweden.* To which is prefixed a Journal of a Voyage down the Elbe from Dresden to Hamburgh, including a compendious historical Account of the Hanseatic League. By Louis de Boisgelin, Knight of Malta. With Views from Drawings taken on the Spot by Dr. Charles Parry. 4to. 2 Vols. pp. 854. 3l. 3s. Boards. Wilkie and Robinson.

THE name of M. de Boisgelin will be familiar to those of our readers who bear in recollection his account of "Antient and Modern Malta," in two ponderous quartos, which were reviewed in our 49th volume, N. S. It may not so readily occur to them that this author is one of the two travellers who, twenty years ago, extended their peregrinations over the north of Europe, and gave to the world their remarks on Germany, Denmark, Sweden, Russia, and Poland, under the title of "*Voyage de deux Français au Nord de l'Europe.*" That work was of considerable importance, and was noticed by us (Vol. xxix. page 533.) at some length: but we were deceived, it seems, in considering M. de Boisgelin as the publisher of the book, his companion, Comte de Fortia, having, it is now said, been the person who prepared it for the press. As of the two travellers the Count appears the least initiated in the precious secrets of the book-making fraternity, it might have been fully as well for the public that he had officiated as editor of the present Travels; since we have serious complaints to make against the Knight of Malta for an unreasonable extension of his printed matter. It is of the more importance also to enter a protest against this trespass, because we are threatened with a succession of farther publications from the same pen. Holland, Hesse, Hanover, Austria, Prussia, Saxony, and the rest of the empire, together with Poland, Russia, and our own favoured isle, are all destined (Preface, p. 7.) to be pourtrayed by the hand of M. de Boisgelin. If he manages these works as he has done the present, he will find the means of going to press with very little trouble to himself; the book before us being in fact only a translation into English of the *Voyage de deux Français*, with sundry additions and corrections adapting it to the altered state of the times. Of the additions, the principal are a voyage down the Elbe in 1806, a history of the Hanseatic league, and the details of the assassination of Gustavus III. in March 1792. Of these different pieces the first is the most interesting; the second and third having so little connection with the object of a book of travels, that the proper mode of introducing them would have been in the shape of an appendix, or notes. Had this plan been followed, and had a long string of minute details in both volumes been excluded or curtailed, a single

quarto, or two small octavos, would have sufficed to convey the valuable portion of the whole to an English reader. More pains, also, should have been taken to alter the statistical tables for Denmark and Sweden, of which the revenue and military establishments are now on a very different footing from that of the year 1790. Had these various matters received due attention, the condensation of useful knowlege, and that perspicuity in which brevity is often a principal ingredient, could not have failed to render the book highly acceptable to the public. As it is, however, it has a title to considerable attention for the variety of its information; and the reader who has patience to wade through prolix descriptions will find himself, on the whole, amply rewarded for his labour.

M. de Boisgelin prefaces his narrative by ample acknowlegements to various literary and political characters, to whom he is indebted for information. We have heard it whispered that these declarations are sometimes inserted as much for the sake of giving consequence to a book, as to gratify the persons thanked; and our readers may be disposed to apply this suspicion to the present work, when they find M. de Boisgelin ranking so conspicuous a person as the late Gustavus III. among the contributors of private anecdotes. Complaints, he says, are sometimes made against the English *literati* for not being sufficiently communicative to foreigners: but, for his part, he has found it much otherwise; and he forthwith inserts a flattering list of persons, with Earl Spencer at their head, from whom he has received the most polite attentions. He occupies the remainder of his introduction with a *catalogue raisonné* of the different publications on the history of Hamburgh and the Hanseatic league; which, though drawn out to the length of twenty pages, is one of the least exceptionable parts of the volume. Next comes the journal of a voyage by M. de Boisgelin and two companions down the Elbe from Dresden. Their expedition was commenced rather suddenly, on the news of the approach of the French against the Russians in October 1806, and was conducted with too much haste and anxiety to admit of a deliberate observation of the various scenes through which they passed. Their vessel was a covered boat, containing room for their carriage and baggage, as well as for cooking victuals; with accommodation for the rowers, who were four in number, exclusive of the master. The hire of the vessel to Hamburgh was 40l. sterling; a stock of provisions was sent on board by the travellers; and, to avoid the inconvenience of bad inns, they took beds with them, and regularly passed the night in the boat. Impatient as they were to get out of the reach of the French, they were much mortified on being exposed to almost innumerable

innumerable detentions at the tolls. The houses at which payment must be made are often at a distance from the water-side; and the sovereigns of the different districts traversed by the river insist on the discharge of the tolls in their own respective coins. The best plan by far is to bargain with the boat-owner to take on himself, for a specific sum, the payment of these troublesome dues.—At each halting-place, the travellers eagerly inquired the news from the armies, but could learn nothing with certainty except the death of Prince Louis of Prussia. So difficult is it to acquire intelligence by rumour, even of neighbouring events, that four days elapsed after the fatal battle of Jena, before the inhabitants of the banks of the Elbe were apprized of the result.

'On arriving at Magdeburgh, what a melancholy spectacle presented itself to view! The whole country was covered by a line of waggons, which extended beyond our sight, and were filled with the sick and wounded, and their baggage. The ramparts were lined with soldiers as if besieged by the enemy. The dry ditches were full of carriage-horses and their drivers, both worn out by fatigue and fasting, the greater part having neither eaten nor drank for more than twenty-four hours. The cannon, and the ammunition and other waggons came on so fast, that the town, large as it is, was presently entirely filled. In vain it was represented at the gates, that it was impossible to admit more, that the squares, courts, and streets, were already crowded with carriages; still those who arrived continued rushing in, till at last they were forced to open a passage into the large inclosure of the advanced fortifications. This some of our party witnessed; and words cannot do justice to the distress of the inhabitants, who appeared terror-struck. Those from the suburbs hastened to bring their most valuable effects into the city; and on my inquiring at the custom-house for the principal clerk, they pointed out a boat in which he also was going to the town with his beds and families.'—

'Soon afterward, a hussar arrived full gallop, and stopping, whispered the officer who commanded the nearest post to the bridge; he then immediately rode into Magdeburgh. This officer was in the artillery, and never quitted the cannon planted in that place, for the purpose of destroying the bridge: it was ready pointed, and the cannoneers, with lighted matches, only waited for the signal to fire. Having observed a decent dressed citizen talking with this officer, who appeared much alarmed on quitting him, I ventured to ask him, what news was brought by the hussar? I was answered, "That the French would be in sight in an hour." This most disagreeable intelligence I kept to myself, not wishing to alarm my fellow-travellers, but my impatience to proceed can easier be imagined than expressed.'

The travellers were so fortunate as to steer clear of the French, and to arrive in safety at Hamburgh. The beautiful appearance of this city from a distance is productive of considerable disappointment on entering its narrow and dirty streets. The houses, built both of brick and wood, project forwards into

into the streets; and the windows, as in other towns of Germany, are so narrow and so near to each other as to make the dwellings of the lower orders look like manufactories. The population is computed at 110,000, of whom near 12,000 are Jews. The police is remarkably good, especially in cases of fire; which attention indeed is indispensible in a town that is built principally of wood. So admirable are the precautions, and so accurately do the engine-workers and others know the parts which they have to act, that no instance has occurred, for many years, of two houses being burned in succession. The society in this city is chiefly mercantile, scarcely half-a-dozen noble families being resident in it. Here, as in the other great trading cities of Europe, the merchants live with a splendour not inferior to that of aristocratic families. Literature was formerly at a very low ebb in Hamburgh: but, in late years, a great improvement has taken place, and the public libraries are now much extended. One of the best establishments of the place is a public pawn-brokerage, at which money is lent to the poor at the annual interest of six per cent., and the articles, though often sold in consequence of the inability of the parties to redeem them, are so managed as to obtain their real value. Though the poor are very numerous, no one is allowed to beg; they are kept within doors, and made to work for their subsistence. The most prevalent complaints at Hamburgh are consumptions and other affections of the lungs; owing probably to the damp produced by the quantity of water, which always adjoins and not unfrequently inundates the city. Few places, however, can boast more beautiful environs. The mixture of wood and water, joined to extensive prospects, makes the neighbouring scenery delightful in summer. The Elbe is supposed, by many who have not seen Hamburgh, to be the only river near it: but, in addition to that capacious stream, which flows on the south, it possesses the Alster to the north, and the Bille to the east. Though the surrounding country is fertile, the concourse of inhabitants makes living, and consequently wages, so high, that few manufactures are carried on at Hamburgh. Sugar-refining ranks among the most considerable; and there are, or rather were, in this city, nearly three hundred bake-houses of that description, great and small. [It deserves to be mentioned that the sugar-houses in our own country are worked almost exclusively by Germans.] In former years the chief importations of sugar, as well as of other colonial produce, were received from St. Domingo, which made the commerce of Hamburgh with France much greater than with other countries: but, since the French Revolution, the principal trade of Hamburgh has been with England. The chief articles of export from

from the Elbe are corn, timber, hemp, lead, and wool; all of which are brought by water-carriage from a distance. Vessels of 300 tons and upwards are obliged, by their depth of draught, to complete their loading at some distance below Hamburgh.

M. de Boisgelin communicates several observations on a topic which was lately discussed in the Report of the Bullion-Committee; viz. the rules of the Hamburgh Bank. This establishment is of much older date than the Bank of England, having originated in 1619. Our bank was an institution of convenience; theirs, of self defence, the neighbouring states debasing their coin in such a manner as to constitute a kind of premium on the export of the unadulterated currency of Hamburgh. It was therefore determined by the merchants to pay their coin into the bank, and to make most of their transactions by cheques or transfers. Such was the commencement of the Bank of Hamburgh; and its constitution still retains its original character, with this difference, that bank-money now represents no particular coin but any silver of a given fineness. A proprietor of a balance of bank-money is intitled to receive it in this silver whenever he chuses: but the merchants rarely think of drawing it out, finding it more convenient to make their transactions by an exchange of cheques.—When treating of so important a topic as the Bank of Hamburgh, we have no objection to M. de Boisgelin's minuteness: but he unluckily follows it up with an enumeration of other matters, of which we are under the necessity of saying that they would be less misplaced in a "Hamburgh Guide" than in a book of travels. The history of the Hanseatic league, into which the author next enters, is given with equal prolixity, and is of course equally tedious. Of the contents of thirty pages, the only points which we deem worth offering to the attention of our readers are, that the league, when in its plenitude, consisted of sixty-four towns; that its dissolution took place about the year 1630; and that, since that time, the title of Hanse Towns has been confined to Lubeck, Bremen, and Hamburgh. The name of Arnemunda in the old list of Hanse towns having puzzled some authors, we believe that we can solve the difficulty, and may safely pronounce it to have been Arnemuyden, in the island of Walcheren, which was formerly a sea-port of some consequence, though it is now an inconsiderable village.

After his minute account of the Hanseatic league, M. de Boisgelin proceeds to a description of Denmark; which, as we have already stated to our readers, is nothing else than a translation of the part of the *Voyage des deux Français* which related to that kingdom, accompanied by a notice of the alterations produced

produced in the course of the last twenty years. For the latter, the author is indebted, as he acknowleges, (Introduction, p. 4.) to M. Catteau's valuable work, *Tableau des États Dannois.*— We extract several passages of the description of Copenhagen:

'Some parts of this city are magnificent. The Goth-Street is a mile in length, and built in a straight line. It is, in general, well paved with flag-stones for foot-passengers in almost all the streets; but these are too narrow to be of any use; added to which, they are crossed by kennels between each house; and though these are usually covered with planks, it is not always the case; which makes it inconvenient, and indeed dangerous, to walk in the dark. The city is pretty well lighted.—Since the great fire, which destroyed nearly a third of Copenhagen, in 1795, and which consumed the worst part of the town, the whole has been greatly embellished, and handsome houses, regularly built, have replaced the antient ones.'—

'Copenhagen is very interesting to a traveller, and contains many fine establishments, which ought to be accurately examined. This city unites to the advantages of a capital all those arising from a commercial town. The port is safe and very handsome; and there are a great many canals, which are extremely convenient for transporting merchandise, and carrying it to the different store-houses appointed to receive it. The number of inhabitants in Copenhagen amounted, in the year 1789, to 85,470; and in 1799, to 83,618. If, as we have reason to believe, this calculation be just, it appears that the population of this city has been nearly the same for some time, and even in some degree diminished. It is probable that, owing to the dearness of Copenhagen, several persons may have retired either into the country, or into provincial towns.'—

'There are very few assemblies in Copenhagen. Ombre is the favourite game, even at court. The *corps diplomatique* is the great resource of foreigners; and the ministers almost constantly live amongst themselves. They have established a private theatre, where they perform once a fortnight, and the royal family constantly attends. There are also different clubs, the members of which frequently give balls and concerts in the winter, where foreigners find no difficulty in being admitted.'—

'If we compare Copenhagen with respect to science to the other cities of Europe, the advantage will undoubtedly not be on her side. The northern countries are in general very much behind-hand in every thing relating to arts and sciences; which we attribute to two principal causes. In the first place, the climate can have no great attractions for those born in a milder atmosphere; it indeed must, in a great degree, prevent learned and ingenious foreigners from settling in the country. The northern people are therefore left very much to themselves; which must have a great influence upon the state of the sciences, and still more upon that of the arts, which, in our opinion, require foreign assistance to bring them to perfection. A second obstacle is the poverty of the country, which cannot be remedied. Affluence is necessary for encouraging the arts; and it is impossible they can flourish where the fortunes of individuals are so moderate as they

they generally are in Denmark, though in Sweden they are still more so. It must not, however, be thought that there are no men of letters, libraries, nor cabinets of curiosities, in Copenhagen.'—

'Holberg, a native of Norway, though in very confined circumstances, travelled over the greatest part of Europe, and fixed his residence at last at Copenhagen. Possessed of very superior talents, and expressing his ideas with peculiar facility, he published a variety of works on different subjects. He wrote upon history, geography, and philosophy; he also tried his genius in the satirical and burlesque style, but he owes his reputation principally to his comedies; though it is very apparent, on reading the theatrical works of this fruitful author, that he had been introduced at too late a period into the kind of society capable of refining his taste, and forming his judgement.'—

'From the middle of the eighteenth century to the present moment, many circumstances have combined to invigorate talents, and to extend the field of letters and science. Several men of distinguished merit have been enabled by goverment to undertake travels and voyages to increase knowlege, and to make useful discoveries. Learned and literary societies have been formed; public libraries have been considerably augmented; money being in general less scarce, a taste for reading and information of different kinds has spread through all ranks of people.'

The library of the King of Denmark is a large collection; amounting, since the purchase of the late Mr. Suhm's books, to 260,000 volumes. The University-library is said to consist of 60,000 volumes. — If we turn from literature to trade, and compute the number of ships which annually navigate the Baltic, we find those of our own country greatly surpassing those of any other. A list is given (p. 52.) of the number of vessels which paid toll-dues at the Sound during a period of fourteen years, from 1777 to 1790, in which we find the

Aggregate of Danish shipping to be	20,454
Dutch - -	20,861
Swedish - -	24,529
English - -	36,165.

Many of the Danish and Swedish vessels being coasters, the Dutch was, no doubt, the flag which, in extent of tonnage, approached nearest to ours: but it deserves to be remarked that not only was the total of their shipping greatly inferior, but the progressive variation was altogether in our favour, their number being annually on the decrease, while ours proceeded in an augmenting ratio. — The military force of Denmark in infantry, cavalry, and artillery, may be computed at 60,000 men, of whom about the half are constantly under arms. Enlisting, we understand, is no longer the mode of raising troops: but all young men, except the sons of citizens, are accounted liable to enter on service at the age of twenty-one. These indi-

viduals draw lots, and all those who are thus selected are obliged to serve during six years; by which means an addition of 6 or 7,000 men is annually made to the army in Denmark, Holstein, and Sleswick. As a third only of the army is embodied at a time, two years of actual duty are all that is required, attendance in the months of May and June being accounted sufficient during the rest of the period. At the end of the six years, the soldier becomes a militia-man, in which capacity he attends muster a few days only in the year. In eight years more he is exempted from this duty, and his name is inscribed in the reserve-militia, a corps which is scarcely ever assembled.

M. de Boisgelin's second volume is appropriated to an account of Sweden; in which, as in that of Denmark, we have a translation of the old work, with certain appendages arising out of events subsequent to the publication of the latter. Sköne, or Scania, the first province entered by the traveller arriving from the south, has a milder climate than any other part of Sweden; and the horses, oxen, and animals of every kind, are larger than elsewhere. The population here is not so thinly scattered as in the rest of Sweden, being computed to amount to 250,000 souls. In addition to other towns, Scania contains Malmoe, a flourishing place with 9000 inhabitants; and Lund, the seat of the second Swedish University. Carlscrona, the chief naval harbour and arsenal of Sweden, is situated in the adjoining province of Blekingen. It is well built, and takes rank in the list of Swedish cities after Stockholm and Gottenburgh. The port is excellent, and strongly defended both by nature and art. Gottenburgh has thriven greatly during the war which for the last twenty years has agitated the chief part of Europe. From the circumstance of having canals cut through the principal streets, and rows of trees planted along their banks, it bears resemblance to a Dutch town: but of foreign merchants the British are here both the most numerous and the most in favour. It will require in Bonaparte more dexterity than his denunciations against trade have as yet discovered, to accomplish a change in the mercantile predilections of the Swedes.

The author expatiates largely on the integrity of the Swedish peasantry; whom he declares to be, in that respect, equal, if not superior, to the lower class in any other country of Europe. He regrets, however, to add that this high reputation is on the decline in the towns, and in the portions of the kingdom which are most frequented by travellers. The inhabitants of the northern provinces, and of the retired parts of the rest of the country, still maintain that purity of character which

caused it to be said that a trunk might be sent unlocked, in perfect safety, from one end of Sweden to the other: but Stockholm has lost all claim to a participation in this high honour. Morals are there nearly on a par with those of other capitals; and adventurers are as numerous as in most cities which are inhabited by a mixed population.

'The predominant religion is the Augsburg Confession of Faith, which has not undergone the smallest change: but liberty of conscience is every where allowed, and no mode of worship prohibited. The Catholics have a church at Stockholm; there are near two thousand in that city, and at least six thousand more in different parts of the kingdom. Many families of that persuasion are established in Finland, who come to Stockholm once a-year, or at least once in two years, to perform the acts of devotion prescribed by their religion.'—

'The Swedes are infinitely better informed than other nations; and all the peasantry, without any exception, know how to read. Gustavus III., who never neglected any thing, had reason, from this circumstance, to dread the effects of news from France, and the influence it might have upon the minds of his people: he therefore forbad mention being made of the French Revolution in the Swedish Gazette, not wishing to have any thing appear in the public prints either for or against it; thinking, with reason, that ignorance upon this subject was the best method of insuring the happiness of his people.'—

'The peasants form the fourth order of the state; and Sweden is the only place in Europe (at least the only considerable nation) where the husbandman is regarded as any thing *.'

The encomium on the knowlege of the Swedes is, however, to be taken with qualification, since in another passage we find M. de Boisgelin holding a very different language:

'Learning has been very little cultivated for some years past in Sweden; reading is not the taste; and the generality of people are not desirous of improvement; the nobles, especially, when taken in a mass, are reputed ignorant: the clergy, indeed, are better informed, which is usually the case every where, but even amongst that body there are very few particularly distinguished by their superior knowledge. Gustavus III., however, contributed greatly to the progress of science; and the academies, gymnasiums, and public schools, are striking proofs of the enlightened genius of that excellent Prince.'

The contradiction between these passages is to be reconciled by the distinction that, while the commonalty in Sweden are better informed than in the other countries of Europe, particularly the Roman Catholic states, the higher ranks have no

'* The case is the same in the Tyrol.'

preten-

pretensions to any such superiority: but, which is wo part of the aristocracy, and a most essential part too, we the senate, must be said to be greatly behind their poorer trymen in the national virtue, integrity. The election of E dotte afforded to all Europe a memorable example of the of foreign gold; and the following anecdote (p. 368.) will that, by thus acting, the senators of the present day have copied the example of their fathers and grandfathers:

'A senator agreed with the French ambassador to sell hi vote in an affair of consequence, for four thousand plottes (what above three hundred pounds). The secretary of the em who was sent to pay him, met the senator in his carriage, an quainted him with the business he was going upon. The senato he need not proceed any farther, but give him the four tho plottes, which were in bank notes. The young man gave hi money, as any one else would have done in the same situation how great was his surprise and indignation, when his ambassad formed him the next morning, that the senator demanded the which he absolutely denied having received. The affair in qu was very important, and this man's opinion of great weight; sequently it was thought more prudent to give eight tho plottes, than to sacrifice four thousand for nothing. The a sador and his secretary, (who is now likewise an ambassador,) both alive in 1793.'

We turn our eyes with impatience from such gross rasc to contemplate the rude honesty of the Dalecarlians, an literary tranquillity of Upsal:

'Dalecarlia is more than eighty leagues in length, and sixty b There is very little arable land, and the population is not pr tionate to such an extent of country, the number of inhabitants amounting to about a hundred and twenty thousand. The cipal, and indeed the only riches consist in mines and forges this country, interspersed as it is, with lakes, forests, and tor may at least boast of giving birth to a brave, loyal people, ev tached to their sovereigns, though jealous of their liberties. T people, nearly as wild as their native mountains, still preserve original harsh, rigid manners, and style of character. Enjoyin same degree of freedom, they cannot bend their necks to the yo slavery; and though truly attached to their King, they look u him more as a chief than a sovereign master. They are, how always ready to defend his cause; and the Dalecarlians of the sent times have given proofs to Gustavus III. that they have no generated from their ancestors. Whenever they meet the King, preserve their former custom of taking him by the hand. The lecarlians are distinguished by the name of Grey and Black, their habits being always one or other of these colors.'—

'Upsala, formerly the capital of Sweden, is now that of Up The city is very small, containing scarcely four thousand inhabit exclusive of the students, the number of whom vary, as in e

other university, though they seldom are fewer than five hundred. Upsala, though small, is well inhabited.—Several Swedish noblemen live here, either from the wish of superintending their estates in the neighbourhood, or to avoid the expence and bustle of the capital.—Three days at least are requisite to see Upsala properly; for this city contains many objects of curiosity, and is doubly interesting from having been the residence of Linnæus and Bergmann.'—

'The University was founded in 1476. Gustavus Adolphus, in 1624, made it a grant of some lands, which remain under the inspection of the consistory of professors. The revenue at that time, twenty-five thousand crowns, of three dollars each, is now nearly tripled, but the amount greatly depends upon a good or bad season.—There are four faculties; four divinity professors (formerly there were five) who compose the ecclesiastical consistory; two professors of civil law; thirteen of philosophy; and four of physic. The new professors consist of one of divinity, one of private œconomy, and one of oratory and politics. The professors have a salary of fourteen hundred silver dollars, with a hundred tun of wheat, which may be estimated at sixteen hundred.—There are two vacations annually, one from the 14th of December to the 28th of January, and the other from Midsummer to Michaelmas. The professors give lessons gratis, four times a week; but those who receive private ones pay one, two, or three rix-dollars a month, according to their circumstances, which payments are made at the two terms. There are particular foundations called *stipendia* (*exhibitions*) enjoyed by above a hundred students at Upsala. These are worth from 5l. to 30l. sterling, and are principally in the gift of the consistory.'—'The library of this University is much celebrated throughout Europe, but it scarcely deserves so very high a reputation, though it undoubtedly contains many curious articles; many of which, however, are misplaced in a library.—The first room is dedicated to the *belles lettres*, history and natural history. The contents of the second were a present of Gustavus III. when Prince Royal; which donation is inscribed on the door; and the third contains jurisprudence, divinity, and physic. The manuscripts in this collection are placed on the first floor: the most curious is the Gothic MS. in 4to., intitled *Codex Argenteus*; containing the four evangelists in gold and silver letters:—the whole of the library consists in about fifty thousand volumes.'

Gustavus III. succeeded in accomplishing a revolution in the form of government, but found it a much more difficult task to new-model the habits of his people. The use of ardent spirits, the great curse of Sweden, is too deeply rooted in the people to admit of controul at the hand of the Sovereign; and the most shocking tumults took place when the King attempted to forbid the continuance of private distillation. The scattered nature of the population scarcely admits of levying a productive tax on this the fittest of all objects for a heavy impost.

'In the towns,' says M. de Boisgelin, 'the taxes are numerous, and indeed heavy. All places under government are taxed; but

those who hold different employments pay only for one, which is always the most considerable amongst them. Those who have the title without discharging the duties of the place, pay the double of what they would do if they exercised their employment. The taxes consist—1st, in the poll-tax: 2d. upon all appointments, revenues, and landed property; 3d. upon windows, all articles of luxury, such as horses, carriages, superfluous servants, silk-furniture, gilding, and watches; 4th. upon silk clothes, snuff, and tobacco.' —

'*Army.*—Every province is obliged to furnish either a regiment of infantry or of cavalry, according to its extent and population; and each individual, whether officer or soldier, has a portion of ground allotted him, with a house so situated that the colonel may be nearly in the centre of his regiment, and the captain in the midst of his company; at least, they endeavour this should be the case as much as possible.'—'Each district must provide one or more men, in proportion to its population; and the moment a soldier joins the army, another must be immediately named, that the first may be replaced, in case of death, without loss of time. Whenever a soldier is at liberty to quit the regiment, which is generally the case the greatest part of the year, he works at his trade, or tills the ground.'—

'The Swedish troops are spirited and well-principled; the officers are brave, and the soldiers very like the French soldiers. They are not famous for supporting a continued fire, which they cannot stand for more than a few minutes if they have not the power of returning it: in that case it becomes absolutely necessary to make them charge the enemy. They understand the use of the bayonet, and like to employ it; indeed, the Russians have frequently experienced the formidable power of that weapon. An officer must always head his troop, and advance a few steps before it, otherwise it is very probable they may refuse to march; but, that ceremony performed, a Swede will follow his commander whithersoever he pleases.—The Swedish soldiers are religious; and prayers are constantly read every day in all the regiments. They are honest men, incapable of mean actions, and free from all those vices which reflect dishonour on the name of a soldier throughout the greatest part of Europe. We now only speak of the national troops; for the recruited regiments and the garrisons are much the same as in other places.'

Though a warm admirer of the character of Gustavus III. M. de Boisgelin is ready to acknowlege the imprudence of his proceedings, particularly in his manner of going to war with Russia in 1788. The prerogative of peace or war rested at that time with the states of Sweden: but the King, wishing to act with secrecy and expedition, had taken no steps to obtain their assent. On the part of his Swedish followers, who were of tried fidelity, this omission caused no relaxation of zeal: but with the Finlanders, whose language and feelings are different, it unfortunately supplied a pretext for the acceptance of Russian gold. Sprengporten, a Swedish subject by

birth, acting the part of a traitor to his country, contrived to bribe a number of the Finland officers, and thus obliged the King to retreat at the moment at which he expected to march to the Russian capital, and lay it under contribution. Gustavus's subsequent conduct, in procuring to himself from the senate (p. 363.) the right of making peace and war, was as little intitled to commendation as his measures on occasion of the usurpation in 1772. All these faults, however, are palliated, we had almost said excused, by the singular clemency of this remarkable man; a clemency strikingly exemplified in the last days of his unfortunate life. The pistol used by his assassin, Ankerstroem, was loaded with two balls, and a great many nails; and the surgeons being unable to extract any thing more than a slight part of the charge, the King expired, after having lingered twelve days in torment. Yet, during this long continuance of suffering, he preserved his characteristic calmness and fortitude. His feeling towards the conspirators who had planned his assassination will be best described by an extract from the state-paper published after his death by his brother, the present Duke of Sudermania:

'Being with his late Majesty, who was then upon his death-bed, and who expired in a very few days, we talked to him of the cruel misfortune that had befallen him, and the fatal consequence that would ensue. The King condescended to tell us, that the idea of the deserved tortures which awaited his murderers pained him more than his own sufferings; and he added, that it weighed so much upon his spirits as to prevent his enjoying a moment's peace, till we had promised and sworn to him, upon the faith of a brother and a Prince, that in case he died, we would, in consideration of his entreaties, save the lives of those unhappy wretches who had thus forgotten the fidelity they owed him. Melting into tears at the noble interest he took in their fate, we however ventured to represent, that no laws, either human or divine, could suffer so horrible a crime to escape the punishment of death; and that the honour of the Swedish name, together with the public safety, expressly demanded this justice. His Majesty was sensibly touched at these sincere representations, and said with much sorrow, that if the law of reprisal necessarily required blood for blood, and if his intercessions, as the party concerned, were not sufficient to save the criminal who was so unfortunate as to strike the blow, he reserved to himself the power of pronouncing that the assassin alone should be punished with death, and that he granted their lives to all who were concerned in the plot.'

In consequence of this humane bequest, the sentence of death pronounced on four of the conspirators was commuted to that of perpetual banishment, and Ankerstroem was the only sufferer by capital punishment.

It is now time to bring our report of M. de Boisg volumes to a close; and we cannot take leave of him wi expressing our dislike of the indirect methods which adopted to magnify the importance of the work. The pr bestowed in the preface on M. de Fortia's *Voyage de deux F çais*, followed by the significant intimation that it is by means so complete as the present book,'—the pompous a tation of acknowlegement to ambassadors and artists,— vehement compliments (Vol. ii. p. 390.) to the English natio are all expedients unbecoming an author of real reputa M. de Boisgelin's readers would have been much better ple to have found his attention bestowed on the correction of t typographical errors which at present embarrass them, tend often to produce a ridiculous effect. Though aware in Hamburgh, as in other places, we can no longer din cheaply as in former days, we can scarcely suppose it t accurate to represent 24 and 28 dollars (Introd. p. 38.) a current charge for a dinner and pint of wine at a Hamb ordinary. In the second volume, we are referred by the t of contents to a particular page for the coins, weights, and r sures of Sweden, which on turning over the book we find hundred pages farther on, without any apology for the gularity. In another part, (Vol. i. p. 55.) *eighteen hundred* is we conceive, for *eighteen hundred thousand*. M. de Boisgel not more fortunate in the mode of classing his plates; a v of Elsineur and the Sound being inserted (Vol. i. p. 40.) in midst of a description of Hamburgh. The plates are in n ber about a dozen, and not highly executed. To the ab mentioned animadversions, we might add the charge of h and inelegant translation; as in the use of the unsanctio word 'disfavour;' of such Gallicisms as 'pension' instea *board*, 'the portraits are resembling,' (Vol. ii. p. 8.) instead *the portraits bear a likeness*, &c. &c.: but we decline to mult quotations of exceptionable passages, being satisfied that eno has been said to point out the defects of the work, and to sh how unfortunately the value of materials may be counterac by haste and inattention in putting them together.

In the introductory pages of vol. ii. are some severe strictu on Acerbi's *Travels in Sweden, &c. in* 1798 *and* 1799, extrac from a work by Colonel Skjöldebrand, who was the compan of Mr. Acerbi.

ART. VII. *The Projector;* a Periodical Paper, originally published in Monthly Numbers, from January 1802 to November 1809. Revised and corrected by the Author. 8vo. 3 Vols. 1l. 7s. Boards. Nichols and Son, Payne, &c. 1811.

BOOKS which treat of every-day things in an every-day manner, of which the style neither rises to elegance nor sinks into vulgarism, and the matter owes its claim on general attention to its very triviality, are unwelcome lots for the critic. It misbecomes him to communicate the contagious yawn of indifference; and, in order to escape the reproach of dulness, he is often tempted to forego the equity of a judge, and to adopt the exaggerating tone of a hostile or a partial advocate. Yet in a case of this nature, satire and panegyric would be equally misapplied. Who would break a butterfly on the wheel, or *camphorate* an ephemeron for immortality?

Besides, since there must always be a numerous public, furnished only with ordinary information, engaged in noticing daily occurrences, and chiefly alive to common concerns, — who at times endeavour to cry-up a light book, but whom an unusual phrase would rather puzzle than please, and a new thought rather dazzle than delight, — why should not this public have its appropriate book-makers? Safe books, no matter how insipid, are always welcome presents in families: they bind as well as others, indeed their bindings keep better: they are ready for a wet day; and the idle and the thoughtless can profess to intend to begin to set about thinking of reading them. A satirist says, after Horace, rather harshly,

> "The middling author's vain attempt to live
> Not readers, critics, booksellers forgive:"

but Horace, be it observed, speaks only of poets; and mediocrity in prose-writing is often allowed to be extensively patronized.

The British Essayists are very numerous; and Mr. Chalmers and Dr. Drake have succeeded in reviving a degree of attention, at least to the denominations of the republished volumes. Perhaps they are already too numerous, and should have been accompanied with an expurgatory index, pointing out the papers which it would be fatiguing to peruse, and thus decimating the contents into legibility. If it be a laudable ambition to add some vertebræ more to the long back of these lasting editions, Mr. Chalmers's *Projector* has as good a *title* to advance as the Spectator: but we like English superscriptions better, to be admitted into the number of our breakfast-table classics. Unhappily, titular rank differs from inherent worth.

The Projector imitates the Spectator throughout. Addison, though a graceful writer, ought not now perhaps to be made

[illegible] His style, if idiomatic and unaffected
[illegible] his humor is sometimes feeble
[illegible] Illustrations are elegant and various, bu
[illegible] trifling and effeminate. He has no
[illegible] his criticism wants precision
[illegible] refinement in cogency. Moreover, all th
[illegible] however original or meritorious i
[illegible] become, by continual use and repeate
[illegible] familiar, that readers instinctively lay asid
[illegible] modern paper, which announces itsel
[illegible] well-known moulds. We will cop
[illegible] contains the present author's own analysis o
[illegible] it will instantly be perceived that ou
[illegible] borrower of projects; that his schemes o
[illegible] analogous to those which have been executed b
[illegible] he opens only a shop of deposit, whic
[illegible] the original stock of a retailer.

[illegible] Projectors—their general character—Of Po
[illegible] Ingenious Projectors—the PROJECTOR's perso
[illegible] Projectors—more of them in th

[illegible] Writers—distinction betwee
[illegible]—an account of the Illustrantes o

[illegible] great equality of temper—plan fo
[illegible]—causes of the temper—form of card
[illegible]—how curable by factitious air.
[illegible] with France—Great Britain abl
[illegible]—Consumption of time very much in
[illegible]—ignorance and irreligious principles
[illegible] Correspondents—hints t
[illegible]—the Plague in London—
[illegible]—ses of Disease in conversation.
[illegible] Pleasure—vindication of over
[illegible] Eclat.
[illegible]—Project for measuring o
[illegible] to men, wigs, and publi

[illegible]—increased demand for sunshine—th
[illegible] happiness water-proof—character and
[illegible]'s mode of seeing sights by proxy.
[illegible] names to articles of furniture—

[illegible] Pauper—effects of wealth on

[illegible] matter, this fragment of his catalogue
[illegible] manner, our readers shall be enabled
[illegible] which, as it describes a state of feeling

peculiar

peculiar to our own times, will shew with what degree of fidelity and vivacity a picture of living manners and of the passing age is to be found sketched in these lucubrations. We can discover but little coherence in the parts of the delineation, and but little felicity in the execution.

'THE PROJECTOR, *No.* 21. 8th Aug. 1803.

"*Calamitas Virtutis occasio est.*" SENECA.

'It was the observation of an old friend, who once recovered from a dangerous illness, that he was often encouraged to suffer his pains with submission, and always to recollect them with pleasure, in consequence of the many kindnesses he experienced on that occasion, and the many anxious inquiries which were made by persons with whom he could not boast of much intimacy. I experienced a similar pleasure, when, in taking a long walk a few evenings since, I contemplated the vast number of my fellow-subjects who were submitting to all the fatigues and inconvenience of the Military drill, that they might speedily be qualified to give their aid and support to Old England at the present alarming crisis. If calamity, as the author of my motto says, be "Virtue's opportunity," if danger or distress be the season when friendship is most acceptable and most sincere, one is almost induced to thank the occasion that has produced such testimonies of patriotism as cannot be suspected, and perhaps never were paralleled. We are, indeed, in circumstances for which history affords no adequate precedent; and what, therefore, can be more cheering than the reflection, that extraordinary emergencies have not called in vain for extraordinary exertions?

'If we contemplate these matters in a less serious light, we might say that even the gay and fashionable world, for whose interest the Projector has long laboured, ought not to be unthankful for an occasion which is likely to afford them the means of destroying their old and natural enemy, TIME, in a manner that may be amusing to themselves, and beneficial to their country. How opportunely are they called upon to join the drill and parade, at the very moment when routs and assemblies, operas and breakfasts, become suspended by the regular course of fashion, and the session of gaiety is over; and when nothing remains to divert the tediousness of life, but rural retirement, which is too frequently found to increase the disease, and to turn exertions into fidgets. Happily, therefore, for such, the remainder of the year promises an anxious scene of bustle, and a continued series of operations which will leave no hour without its due share of employment. I appeal to the lovers of amusement, whether a review of three or four hours will not yield more variety, and make a greater noise, than a rout of the same duration; whether the epaulet, the gorget, and the sash, will not be more becoming than the dress of dominos, harlequins, and Tiddy Dolls; and whether even an ordinary field-day will not be more exhilarating than a public breakfast. The ladies too will, I hope, readily come into this opinion; and if they, instead of informing their male friends that they are *at home* once or twice in a season, will send each a card with

the words "The country is in danger," I trust they will raise *companies* as numerous as in winter (although the *files* may be more *open*), and whose names will hereafter make a much more distinguished figure in the London Gazette, than in the porter's list, or in the columns of a newspaper. Our dames of high rank and spirit cannot, I farther trust, be ignorant that they will derive more honour from rousing the valour of their beaux in the service of the nation, than they have ever yet reaped from the unvaried repetition of compliments, ringing the same changes upon "coloured lamps, early cherries, chalked floors," or staircases fantastically ornamented with the borrowed productions of Covent-garden market. For surely, setting aside all consideration of an invasion, what are the honours worth, which we must share with gardeners and lamplighters?

'In my humble capacity of Projector, I have been seriously thinking of a plan to embody the irresistible powers of the fair-sex on the present occasion, and to form them either into an army of reserve, or raise their fascinations *en masse*. But although I have consulted many ladies of spirit and courage, and who have distinguished their prowess in lesser engagements, incident to domestic warfare, I have not yet been able to contrive any scheme by which they may be brought to bear against the common enemy. The history of the Amazons is very interesting, and very romantic; but the majority, in these days of scepticism, deem it fabulous, and wonder we should believe that there ever was a nation of women who fought without husbands. Yet not many years are elapsed since there was some appearance of the revival of Amazonian courage, when the ladies not only practised, but were said to excel in the genteel exercise of archery; and at this day I am told that certain high-born dames and damsels make so distinguished a figure in hunting, as to be in at the death, when half of the sportsmen have been distanced or unhorsed. These circumstances look somewhat promising; they are grounds for speculation, and at least shew that my meditations on the subject have not been wholly visionary. I have also to add, that, if the modes of education pointed out some years ago by certain politicians in petticoats, and philosophers in muslins, had not been suffered to fall into contempt, His Majesty's forces might perhaps at this moment have been recruited promiscuously from both sexes. My readers will probably recollect, that the scheme of these literary Amazons was to educate girls in all the sports, amusements, exercises, &c. of boys. Two consequences, it was fondly hoped, must have followed from this: either that the fair sex would have acquired that superiority over the other, which these she-philosophers contended was highly practicable; or, they might have been so equal to the males in all hardihood both of body and mind, that the difference would not have been perceptible unless by very curious inquirers. In either case, had not "the pride and tyranny of the fancied lords of the creation" prevented it, we should now have been contemplating the beauty as well as the bravery of our regiments; and our Gazettes would have been filled with the promotion of many a Colonel Jenny and Captain Polly.

'But prejudices, inimical to all great reforms, put a stop to this also; and among other, no doubt equally foolish, objections, one was, that

that regiments of different sexes could not be formed into battalions without danger of the service being neglected; that we should have more field-nights than field-days; that intriguing would take place, instead of exercising; and that no manœuvre would be practised with skill, except the general salute. I did not, however, see much in this objection; for, if our female soldiers had been regularly trained upon the plan of the philosophers above alluded to, there would have been so little of the woman left, that the males would as soon have thought of paying court to a piquet of French *poissardes*, or a company of St. Giles's rangers. Their preference of concubinage to matrimony was certainly somewhat in favour of the objection; and there was another obstacle not very easily surmounted, I mean an uncommon antipathy to that negative manœuvre which the commanding officer enjoins, when he calls *Attention! Order!* Indeed, with all my partiality to the scheme, there is some reason to fear that too many of the privates would have been desirous of giving "the word of command."

'But whatever advantages might have resulted from that and other schemes for the improvement of the fair sex, proposed about the same time, as they were not adopted, and are now forgotten, it is useless to regret, and too late to revive them. Still such are the irresistible powers of the ladies in civil life, that every Projector, at this crisis, ought to be meditating some plan to call them forth. My own ideas, I confess, are not sufficiently matured on the subject, to permit me to give a decided opinion; but, from the great numbers of the sex who have for some weeks been seen marching towards the coasts of Kent and Sussex, with supplies for two or three months, one is inclined to suppose that some secret expedition is in agitation, or that they are eager to bid defiance to the enemy on the very shores where it is most probable he will attempt to land. This, if it be a true statement of the case, does honour to their valour; for they are, I am told, subject to many privations, the greater part having left their husbands at home; while their encampments are not the most convenient, nor well furnished with provisions, unless at very great expence.

'But to return to the favourable opportunity which the present crisis gives for the employment of time. A learned author observes that, with a certain class, Time is either very long, or very tedious. Means enough have been invented to abridge it of its length, but the *tædium* of the remaining part would be in general provided for with great difficulty, if emergencies such as the present did not now-and-then arise. What, for example, would become of conversation at this dead season of the year, when the Parliament is about to close and London to become desolate, if the probabilities of an invasion did not come so opportunely, and at the same time so admirably fitted for discussion, that no two persons can be found of the same opinion, even of that small number who happen to have any opinion at all? Long experience proves that the less we know of any subject, the more we talk about it; and perhaps nothing was ever better contrived for the purposes of conjecture, than a case of alarm. It is on this occasion that we think in the dark; and our ideas, playing at blind-man's-buff, are never right but by accident.

'On the present occasion, likewise, I cannot but felicitate the readers of Novels on the opportunity they will now have, of exerting

that

that courage which they have derived from a familiarity with terrific
jects. For some years past all our Novels have turned on one passi
that of fear, which has been excited sometimes ingeniously and so
times clumsily, by means of *ruinated* castles, blue chambers, and lo
galleries, deep dungeons, feeble glimmerings, strange noises, gris
ghosts, and half-picked skeletons. At first these created no sp
alarm, and every boarding-school proclaimed the "reign of terro
Few misses were so hardy as to go to bed without a servant, or
walk in the dark without fancying that the old clock-case wa
murdered spirit. A new series of nervous affections were consequen
introduced, which puzzled the faculty very much, until they discover
how ineffectual bark and steel, and the whole class of tonics, were
the vicinity of a circulating library. At length, however, castles a
ghosts, and blue chambers, and blue devils, became so common, th
it required a very unusual mixture of raw-heads and bloody-bones
excite a moment's apprehension in the most delicate young lad
Light at the end of a gallery had no more effect than farthi
candles ought to have; and the most timid looked behind the tapestr
indifferent whether it concealed a gang of banditti or a set of chin
Murders and rapes were perused with great composure, and towe
toppled on their heads without disturbing a single hair of the Nin
or the Brutus. Vast forests were perambulated by night like t
Mall at noon-day, and travellers lost their way without caring wheth
they ever found it.

'Those therefore who studied courage in such edifying perfo
ances, may have an opportunity to practise it, since they may
assured that the enemy will have no hesitation in performing the
cidents they have familiarised by reading. The threatening foe
indeed, perpetrated them so frequently in other countries, that
haps at no very distant period much of the history of the late
will be read as romance, and the circumstance of a GREAT
murdering his prisoners in cool blood, and poisoning his own t
because they were sick, will be thought the daring invention o
celebrated castle-builder Mrs. Ratcliffe, or of the ghost-m
general, Mr. Lewis.

'I have been led into these desultory remarks, partly by the in
mentioned in the beginning of my paper, but chiefly with a v
contribute my share of contempt for those principles and pr
that folly and dissipation, which more or less have been aidi
present disorganized state of Europe. Very recent experie
demonstrated that we have yet a party, although small, and
impotent, who still persist in circulating opinions subversiv
order of society, and calculated to produce what they have
produced in other quarters, national slavery and humiliation,
dividual poverty and misery. With such men it is impossible
and it would be folly to temporize. If we did not know he
perately wicked" the human heart may be, to what could
such conduct, unless to lunacy or fatuity?

'With their utmost industry, however, they have not
to darken the present prospect. Indirectly perhaps we ar
to them; since they have contributed to quicken the ex
rouse the spirit of their indignant fellow subjects. And su

has been the consequence of the menaces of the enemy and the artifices of his agents, that in a very short time the nation will be placed out of the reach of all probable danger. Among others who have contributed to this just and necessary cause, in a very considerable degree, are the Clergy. It is with great pleasure I now frequently hear discourses from the pulpit, expressly adapted to the circumstances of the nation, and pointing how the passing events are to be considered in a religious view. This is highly seasonable. The present is not the time when public licentiousness ought to prevail without resistance. It is impossible to read, unconcerned, the heterogeneous intelligence which some of our newspapers afford—a short paragraph respecting the danger of the nation, and a lengthened column of insipid trash relating to a dance, or a rout. This frivolous spirit, we trust, is not English; and it is, therefore, peculiarly becoming in the teachers of sacred truth, to direct the public attention to objects of higher importance, and to those resources in a time of danger, which are beyond all human power or contrivance.

'The eventful history of the last ten years is an awful lesson to all nations. And now we are again, and perhaps more closely than ever, to contend with a nation which has hitherto been a scourge in the hand of God—a nation bent on no melioration of the condition of society among any people—a nation once dyed in the blood of its king, its nobles and citizens, under the pretext of regaining liberty, and now so bigoted to slavery as to be determined to spread it and its accompanying miseries over the habitable globe. This is evidently not the work of man, as man. It is irreconcileable with the lowest wisdom, and would be resisted by the shallowest understanding. The enemy are blind agents in the hands of a superintending Providence, who acts for wise, although to us, mysterious purposes. Happy will it be if, by imploring the Divine aid, and exhibiting a thorough reformation, we should become the highly-favoured people appointed to check the career of mad ambition, to restore peace to the distracted nations of Europe, and to bid the sword return into its sheath. When we recollect our many past deliverances, we may humbly hope that one greater than all may yet be in reserve; and if we truly and unfeignedly prize the religious and civil privileges which for so many years we have enjoyed, amidst storms and tempests, we cannot fail at the same time to recollect the terms on which they were granted, and the correspondent duties we owe to the "Giver of every good and perfect gift."'

This and the other component parts of these three handsomely-printed volumes have already been publicly exhibited in the Gentleman's Magazine; and since it is deemed worth while to collect them, we must suppose that they have conciliated the favor of an adapted audience. If one paper of the Projector pleases, many others will accomplish, in nearly an equal degree, the same desirable effect. Elsewhere the humor is equally ridiculous, the reflections as indisputably moral, the characters as truly common, the illustrations as obviously natural, the style as regularly perspicuous, the sentiments as incessantly loyal, and the piety as probably sincere.

Among

Among the more fortunate papers of the ensuing volumes may be reckoned No. 46. in the second volume, and No. 84. in the third; which we should willingly lay before our readers, if the pressure of materials more important did not forbid us.

ART. VIII. *Archaeologia:* or Miscellaneous Tracts relating to Antiquity. Published by the Society of Antiquaries of London. Vol. XVI. Parts 1. and 2. 4to. 1l. 1s. sewed; and 2l. 2s. Boards. White and Co. &c. &c. 1809, 1812.

THIS is, we believe, the first volume of the Archæologia which has been published in parts; and having delayed our report of them till the whole came before us, we shall now proceed, with as much brevity as we can command, to state the contents of the several contributions, which are many and various.

Copy of a Letter Missive from King Edward the Fourth to Thomas Stoner, Esq. with the King's Sign Manuel, preserved among the Records in the Tower: communicated by Samuel Lysons, *Esq. F.R.S. Director.*—This short letter, which is addressed "To our trusty and well beloved Thomas Stoner, of Stoner," appears, according to Mr. Lysons's subjoined comment, 'to have been written in the tenth year of the reign of King Edward the Fourth, A. D. 1470, when the quarrel between the King and the Duke of Clarence and Earl of Warwick, which had been lately made up, broke out with increased violence.' It is singular that Stoner, which is in the parish of Watlington in Oxfordshire, is still in the possession of the Stoner family.

Copies of three remarkable Petitions to King Henry the Sixth, with that King's Sign Manuel, preserved among the Records in the Tower; with a Schedule annexed to one of them, containing an Account of the Robes provided for the Royal Colleges of our Lady of Eton, and of our Lady and St. Nicholas of Cambridge: communicated by the Same. — At the present day, these petitions will be considered as remarkable. In the first, the petitioner, a justice of the Common Bench, on being charged by the King to take on him the degree of serjeant at law, complains of the attendant expence as ruinous to him; and he earnestly begs that the rents of certain tenements, of the yearly value of 25l. 12s. 10d., may be granted to him for his life as an indemnification. The second is from a serjeant at arms, petitioning for the fees of 12d. a-day, with a gown of livery at Christmas. The third is from a robe or vestment-maker of the city of London, who states that, by order of the late Bishop of St. David's, he had made for him certain vestments of white damask,

damask, of diverse sorts, richly embroidered; and that there is due to him for these vestments the sum of 241l. 19s. 3d. The schedule gives the items of the bill, which consist of rich copes, chasubles, tunics, and albes, (sacerdotal habits used in the Romish church,) and altar-cloths richly fringed with gold. This bill, being deemed reasonable, was granted by the King at Newbury.

Account of three unpublished Greek Coins, in Letters from the Rev. Stephen Weston, *B.D. F.R.S.* and *F.A.S.* — The first is a small brass coin of Sala in Phrygia, of excellent workmanship, having a bearded head on one side, and on the reverse a bunch of grapes, with four letters, CAΛH; which, acording to Mr. W., are the first two syllables of the word CAΛHNΩN: the last three letters, he conjectures, having been chipped off in order to reduce the size of the coin, that it might be set as a gem. We are not quite satisfied with this explanation: because, if the remainder of the inscription had been chipped off, a part of the first N would probably have appeared on the coin after the H. — The second is also a small brass coin, which, though not half an inch in diameter, Mr. W. informs us contains much geography, and records a city not mentioned by Ptolemy, Stephanus Byzantinus, or Strabo. On the right side is a turreted head, and on the reverse are an arrow and a palm-branch, with an inscription forming a square, which is thus exhibited; ATOTΣIEΩNTΩN ΠPΩΣ TON KAΠPON, which is conjectured to designate the Atusii, on the river Caper, which with the Lycus runs into the Tygris, just above the Gyndes. The square form of the inscription is said to be peculiar to the coins of Parthia and Cappadocia, and the palm-branch to indicate Assyria. — The third is a copper coin of Heraclea, never before described, if Mr. W.'s account be correct, by any numismatical author. It bears the head of Hercules, and on the reverse, between the bow and arrows in their case and the club, is this inscription (very legible), HPAKΛEΩTAN; which, from its Doric termination, is supposed to indicate Heraclea in Acarnania. Mr. W. does not tell us whence these coins were procured. — In a subsequent letter, at p. 89., Mr. Weston offers farther remarks on the coin of Atusa: but we do not perceive that he has furnished any additional illustration. The preposition Προς marks the position of the place: but, as there are two of the same name, it does not in any way help to shew that the Caper in Asia Minor is not the Caper on which Atusa stood. The arrow on the coin, if a type of the Tygris, might have been employed to denote other rivers which, like the Tygris, had a rapid current. The point, however, is of no moment.

Account

Account of a Greek Coin of Lybia, in a Letter from Samuel Barnardiston Howes, *Esq. F.A.S.*—This coin, which is of brass, has on its obverse a head of Hercules covered with a lion's skin, looking to the left; on the reverse, a bull butting to the right, with a single Punic character over the bull's back; and in the exergue this inscription, BΥΩN. Mr. Howes had this coin in his possession some years without being able to ascertain for what place or people it was struck: but, in consequence of the importation of some Greek coins from Paris, the subject obtained a full elucidation. Among these imported coins was found one in silver, of the didrachm size, with the same type as the brass coin on the obverse; with a lion walking on the reverse, a Punic character over its back, and in the exergue the inscription clearly written, ΛIBIΩN. Hence it appears that the letters wanting in the inscription on the brass coin are *Lambda* and *Iota*, which arose from the coin not having been placed centrally on the under dye. Mr. H. is of opinion that, fifty years ago, not a single coin of Lybia in any metal was known to exist in this country; and he considers the brass one here noticed as *unique* and *unpublished*.

Account of an Ancient Manuscript of St. John's Gospel, by the Rev. John Milner, *F.A.S.*—This MS. copy of St. John's Gospel is a literary curiosity, and no doubt of considerable antiquity: but the legendary history which introduces the account of it is not altogether calculated for the sceptical meridian of Protestantism. We are given to understand that it was the *vade mecum* of St. Cuthbert, and was deposited with him in his tomb in the island of Lindisfarne, in 686 or 687; and that, when the body of this saint was found uncorrupted 418 years afterward, and removed to Durham, this MS. (partaking of the saint's incorruptibility, as we must suppose, and of course uninjured by the damp of a tomb,) found its way to Durham, and was preserved in the treasury there. Before, however, we advert to the MS., we must notice the farther details here given concerning the body of St. Cuthbert. It is stated that, at the dissolution in the reign of Henry VIII., the saint's body was still found incorrupt; and that, while the visitors wrote to Lord Cromwell in London to know what they were to do with it, some of the monks contrived to steal it away, in order to bury it in a private place, and have managed to transmit to their successors the secret respecting the spot in which this incorruptible body is deposited. Mr. M. then gravely adds: 'Thus much I can say, from my certain knowledge, that there are always three gentlemen of the Benedictine order, who profess to know the identical spot, at Durham, where the body of St. Cuthbert rests, and who, as one of them dies, choose another

other, to whom they impart the secret.' Much good may such a secret do them!—In favour of the antiquity of the MS., Mr. M. first urges the inscription at the beginning of it, which is in these words, "*Evangelium Joannis quod inventum fuerat ad caput Beati Patris nostri Cuthberti, in sepulchro jacens anno translationis ipsius.*" To this inscription, which must have been posterior to the MS. itself, Mr. M. assigns the date of the reign of Edward I. or II. The binding, which seems to be of the time of Queen Elizabeth, is in part composed of parchments, which all relate to persons or things connected with Durham; and hence it is inferred that the MS. belonged to the treasury at Durham. The subsequent history of it is thus traced. It is conjectured that, at the Dissolution, it went into private hands, or, in other words, was conveyed away for the sake of its costly binding; that afterward it became the property of the Lees, one of whom, in the reign of Charles II., was created Earl of Litchfield; that the last Earl of that name gave it to Thomas Philips, author of the Life of Cardinal Pole, who bestowed it on the Jesuits' College at Liege in 1769; and that, at the suppression of the order, it was brought to England by one of the fraternity. According to the *fac simile* given with this paper, the MS. is in tolerable preservation, and the characters are very distinct; and if we could credit its having passed uninjured so many centuries in a tomb, we should not object to its later history. To prepare us for admitting the antiquity of this smaller MS. on the ground of intrinsic evidence, we are introduced to a still greater curiosity, viz. the identical beautifully executed and richly illuminated MS. of *the four Gospels*, which St. Cuthbert caused to be executed by the monks of Ealfrid, about 721. This was in folio, and is now preserved, it is said, in the British Museum. Of the duodecimo MS. of St. John's Gospel, which was submitted to the inspection of the Society, Mr. M. thus writes:

'The characters of the manuscript, and the mode of writing, bear intrinsic evidence of an antiquity as high as the age of St. Cuthbert. The text is without chapters, verses, diphthongs, or points of any kind. The letters are all uncial, or capitals, being for the most part Roman, with a mixture of the Saxon. Mr. Planta, who assisted me in comparing this manuscript with the one in the Museum, is decidedly of opinion, that it is, of the two, the more ancient. Now the latter is demonstratively of the time of St. Cuthbert.

'The text is the Latin vulgate; but as in the few passages I have compared with the present vulgate, there are certain various readings, differing from it, I am inclined to think it is of the old Italic vulgate, which existed previously to the corrections of St. Jerome. It perfectly agrees with the text of St. John in the said *Liber Evangeliorum S. Cuthberti*, now in the Museum, as far as my leisure would

would allow me to compare them together. The history of the *woman taken in adultery*, which is wanting in many ancient copies of St. John, both in the Latin and the Greek, is found both in the present manuscript and that of the Museum.'

As we have already said, this MS. is an undoubted antique, though the history of its interment may be spurious. Since Mr. M. had an opportunity of examining it with the folio MS. in the Museum, and as it would not have consumed much of his time to have compared the two Gospels throughout, we lament that he did not make a perfect collation, and subjoin to his letter any various reading which might have occurred. If he had found none, this fact would have deserved notice.

Copy of an original Minute of Council for Preparations for the Ceremonial of the Funeral of Queen Catherine, the divorced Wife of King Henry the Eighth; communicated by Wm. Illingworth, *Esq. F.A.S.*—This minute or remembrance of council, which is preserved among the Records in the Chapter-house, Westminster, contains specific directions concerning the boweling, searing, and chesting up the body with spices in lead; and respecting the ceremonies which were to be used while the body lay in state, and in the act of removing it to the place of interment. Directions are also given for the order and dresses of the attendants, for the painting of the banners and escutcheons which were to be carried before or attached to the hearse; for the charges of the wardrobe, and for the rate of liveries: but the most curious item is that which respects the chariot or car on which the body was to be carried in procession to the place of interment. "There must be provided a charet to conveye the Corps from the Chaple where it shal first rest to the place where it shalbe buried, the corps must be covered wt. a pall of black riche cloth of gold, divided wt. a crosse of white cloth of gold, and uppon the same a cast or puffed Ymage of a princesse apparailled in her Robes of Estate wt. a Cronall uppon her hed in her heare, wt. Rings Gloves and Juells uppon her handes, the Charet must be framed like a Canapye, foure square covered wt. black velvet," &c. A similar image of the person about to be interred may be seen in the plates representing the procession at the funeral of Queen Elizabeth, published some years ago by the Society of Antiquaries.

A Survey of the Priory of St. Helen's in London, taken in the twenty-third Year of King Henry the Eighth; communicated by J. P. Malcolm, *Esq. F.A.S.*—By this survey the whole of the premises belonging to the Priory, with five tenements adjoining, were stated to be of the yearly value of 10l. 6s. 8d.: but it appears from the paper containing the particulars that the view and survey were taken in the 33d (not 23d) year of Henry VIII.

Cotton

Copy of a Roll of the Expences of King Edward the First at Rhuddlan Castle, in Wales, in the tenth and eleventh Years of his Reign, remaining among the Records in the Tower; communicated by Samuel Lysons, *Esq., F.R.S., Director: with a Translation, by the Rev.* John Brand, *M.A., Secretary.* — In 1281, in the tenth year of the reign of Edward the First, Llewellyn, Prince of Wales, endeavoured to throw off the English yoke; and the visit of Edward to Rhuddlan, or, as it is called in the records, Rothelan Castle, was for the purpose of resisting this native Prince. Rhuddlan was the King's head-quarters, and much money was expended in the expedition. 'This roll of expences, which was discovered,' as Mr. L. informs us, 'in 1805, among the unsorted records in the White Tower, consists of four membranes, containing the particulars of the sums paid to the carpenters, masons, smiths, and other workmen employed at the Castle, which no doubt had great additions made to it on the occasion. The wages also of archers and sailors, and of mowers and haymakers, are here detailed under separate heads; besides a great variety of articles under the head of necessaries.'— The carpenters received 6d., 4d., and 3d. per day; the smiths 4d. and 3d.; the sailors for conducting the King's ships to Anglesey, 6d. and 3d., and the boys 2d.; and a certain servant for keeping the King's venison at sea seven days, for his wages, 1s. 2d.; the archers 2d.; masons 4d. and 3d.; mowers 1½d., and spreaders 2d. Under the head of *Necessaries*, we find the following items: 'On the Sunday following, paid for one cart, with three horses, and one with two horses, hired for the carriage of the Queen's hay, for eight days, 2s.'— 'For eight cart loads of lead, price by the cart 5s., bought to cover the King's chamber in the castle of Rothelan, 2l.; for twelve pounds of tin, bought for soldering, 2s. 5d.; for a melting pot and brushwood bought to cast the lead, 11d.;' 'for three tankards bought for the use of Lady Elizabeth, the King's daughter, 6d.' Under the head of *Gifts*, we find, 'to a certain female spy, as a gift, 1s.;' and 'to a certain player, as a gift, 1s.' Those who wish to compare the expences of antient with modern courts will find amusement in this roll.

Copy of a Libel against Arebbishop Neville, temp. Rich. II., and of the Draft of an Indenture of Covenant for the erecting of a Monument to King Henry VIII. and his Queen, by Peter Torrigiano; *communicated by* Wm. Illingworth, *Esq., F.A.S.* — These papers are curious, especially the first, as specimens of the language and mode of writing in antient days: but they cannot be abridged. The first was copied from the original in the Record-office at the Tower; the latter from the papers of Cardinal Wolsey, in the Chapter-house, Westminster. 'Pietro

Torrigiano (called in the indenture Torrysany) executed the magnificent monument of King Henry the Seventh, in the chapel at Westminster, and other works for Henry VIII. in marble, bronze, and wood. After he quitted England he went into Spain, where, being accused of heresy, he was imprisoned, tried, and condemned by the Inquisition, but escaped execution, by starving himself to death in 1522.' What lover of humanity, of science, and of the arts, can help rejoicing that this more than infernal tribunal is abolished!

Copies of five curious Writs of Privy Seal, one of them in the Time of Queen Mary, and the others of Queen Elizabeth, communicated by Craven Ord, *Esq., F.R.S. V.P., from the Collection of the late Sir* Wm. Musgrave, *Bart.* — The epithet employed in this title expresses the value of these transcripts. The last of the writs contains an order from Elizabeth for the delivery of twelve yards of velvet, with white and russet silk for a lining to make a night-gown for *herself;* and fourteen yards of damask to make a night-gown for the *Earl of Leicester!*

Inquiries respecting the Origin of the Inhabitants of the British Islands, in three Letters from the Rev. Samuel Greatheed, *F.A.S.* —Of the origin of every European nation we may say, "*Caput inter nubila condit;*" yet learned men have pleasure in trying to dissipate these clouds; and, by taking liberties with chronology and geography, they often effect something that *primâ facie* appears plausible. Respecting the first inhabitants of the British Isles, we are necessarily in the dark, because both history and tradition must be far posterior to this era, and because our original ancestors were in too rude a state to leave any memorials behind them. Mr. Greatheed's dissertation may be deemed ingenious, and by the British antiquary it may be perused with some interest. Contrary to the prevailing idea that the first inhabitants of Britain were Celts, he supposes them to have been of Iberian extraction; and, in defence of his hypothesis, he appeals to the *classic records* of Greek and Roman authors, to the *traditions* of the Welsh in the Triads, and to the *distinctions of language.* Each of these branches of evidence is separately examined. From the mention by Herodotus, in his description of the river Danube, of the Celtæ as bordering on "the *Cynesians*, the most remote of all the nations who inhabit the western parts of Europe;" and finding also that these Cynesians were the same that were afterward called *Cunei*, who inhabited the border of Spain and Portugal; the author ventures to suppose that the identity of situation proves these Cunei to have been *Iberians.* Having jumped from the Danube to the ocean, and converted, by the lapse of centuries, the Cynesii into Iberians, and shewn that these *Iberi* were distinct from

from the *Celtæ* and the *Belgæ*, (which were only correlative tribes of the same original nation, the former occupying the *western*, the latter the *eastern* part of Gaul,) Mr. G. proceeds to inquire whether traces of these two distinct nations were not apparent to Julius Cæsar when he invaded antient Britain. Now, what is his report? He remarks (*De Bello Gallico*, l. 5. c. 10.) that "the *interior* of Britain was inhabited by those who were immemorially natives of the island, but the maritime parts by the Belgæ." The substance of this evidence is that Cæsar could trace the origin of the inhabitants of the coast, which was opposite to Gaul, but that he knew nothing more of the central inhabitants than that they were distinct from the Belgic invaders.—Mr. G. then subjoins an observation, in which he is not supported by his premises: 'Had we no better information,' says he, 'concerning them, it would be difficult to conceive their origin to have been other than *Iberian*.' The testimony of Tacitus, however, is more to the point; he informs us that the *Silures*, who inhabited South Wales, indicated, by their brown complexions and curling hair, their descent from the antient *Iberians*, who must have passed over from Spain and occupied that part of Britain. The same writer also speaks of the Caledonians as of *German* origin; i. e. descended from a people who resided eastward of the Rhine. Yet, when Strabo maintains the national identity of the Belgæ and Celts of Gaul with the Germans, it is difficult at this distance of time to deduce any certain information from the vague accounts of these authors. Conjecture must help us: but, in order to give it an imposing appearance, Mr. G. puts it in this form: 'we may therefore rationally conclude that the *Silures* and *Aquitani* belonged to the most western nation of Europe, commonly called *Iberians*; and the Caledonians, the Celts of Gaul, the Belgæ, and the inhabitants of *Germany*, notwithstanding diversities that were apparent among them, belonged to the great Celtic nation, which occupied the more eastern part of Europe.' Granting the accuracy of this geographical statement, does it not at first view rather militate against than aid Mr. G.'s hypothesis? Is it not probable that the great Celtic nation, which occupied the part of Europe that was nearest to Britain, sent thither its first inhabitants? Was it not easier to come from Gaul than from Spain to England, especially in the infancy of navigation? The historical hints here adduced are by no means sufficient to prove that 'the earliest *southern Britons* were not *Celts*, but Iberians;' this author, therefore, has recourse, in his second letter, to information that may be collected from the Welsh *triads*. It appears from these poetical records of antient times 'that, when

Britain became known to the Romans, it was inhabited by *seven* distinct colonies, of which the first three were emigrants from Gaul; that the earliest were the *Cymry*, from whom the Welsh, who still bear the name, were descended.' It is added that they came to Britain from *Llydaw*, or *Armorica*, which name was applied to the northernmost part of the Gallic coast, and that *the Iberians had formerly occupied this northern coast.* How are antient nations obliged to "*cross over and figure in*," to serve the purposes of an antiquary! Towards the elucidation of the origin and descent of nations, *glossology* is of great importance; and we wish that Mr. G., in his third letter, had more fully traced the analogy of languages, in order to establish his position: but his general remarks are not sufficient to produce conviction. The conformity of modern languages, and of the English in particular, with the Hebrew, Arabic, and other oriental tongues, may be one proof of the cradle of the human race having been in the region mentioned in the Old Testament: but it is very difficult to determine in what track, or through what media, words or portions of words have travelled to us from their Asiatic sources; and this gentleman must descend to an actual comparison of languages on a large scale, before he can remove the doubts of the sceptic. It is very probable that 'the Welsh, the Cornish, the Armorican, or Bas Breton, the Irish, the Gaelic, and the Manks, are dialects of *one* radical language:' but it is not clear that this radical language was *Iberian*. Why should Mr. G. fix on Iberia, when he confesses that the origin or basis of the Iberian language is a mere matter of conjecture? He endeavours to trace it to Carthage, thence to Egypt, or Phœnicia, and thence to Chaldea or to the Hebrews: but, instead of going to the obscure Iberians, would he not have played a surer card by making his grand radical language *Phœnician*, which was brought to our island by those old navigators who first explored our coasts for the sake of our tin?

An Inventory of certain Articles delivered out of the Armory at the Tower; contained in the Schedule to a Writ of Privy Seal Anno 33 *Henry VI., preserved among the Records in the Tower communicated by* Samuel Lysons, *Esq., F.R.S., Director.* — The items in this inventory shew the style and character of the times to which it refers.

Some Account of Roman Antiquities discovered at Caerhun, in Carnarvonshire, and in other Parts of that County. By the Same. — At Caerhun, the site of the antient *Conovium*, the foundations of a Roman building were discovered, with several fragments of pottery, &c. Mr. Lysons was consequently invited to a survey of the spot, and in this paper he details the result of his examination. Five plates, containing a map of the

the Roman station of Conovium, of the ground-plan of the building discovered near it, and of the pottery and other articles which were dug up in clearing the foundations, accompany the memoir. The building, which was of some extent, is imagined to have been a Roman pottery: but the conjecture is not very strongly supported.

Account of an Antique Persian Gem. By the Rev. Stephen Weston, *B.D. F.R.S. & F.A.S.* — This gem is an agate, on which is engraved the head of a Persian Princess, with her name, *Shakunee*, corresponding with the Greek term ⲥⲱⲛⲓ, in Pahlavi or antient Persic characters. Mr. W. adds that this Princess 'was the daughter of Chosru Parvees the Victorious, twenty-first monarch of the race of Sassan, of the fourth dynasty of Persia, who having been set upon his throne, from which he had been driven by his subjects, by Mauritius, the Greek Emperor, married his daughter Irene, and called her by a Persian name, which, like her own, signified Peace.'

Account of a Silver Tetradracm, with Siculo-Punic Characters. By the Same. — Mr. W. has not exhibited the Punic characters, but he reports them to be Caph, Mem, Resch, Nun, Lamed, Aleph, Gimel, Thau; which, supplying vowels, make the words *Camaran li Agath*, signifying *Camarina ad Paludes*. In confirmation of the justice of this reading and interpretation, we are informed that 'Prince Torremuzza, in his coins of Sicily, has published one like this, on which is KAMAPINA.'

Notices of some Antiquities discovered in Cornwall, in the Year 1793. In a Letter from the Right Hon. Reginald Pole Carew, *F.R.S. & F.A.S.* — The antiquities specified in this letter are 1st, A tin cup of a singular form. 2d. Three portions of a circle of metal, inlaid with real or artificial gems. 3d. A hurling-ball, employed in an antient Cornish game, now fallen into disuse.

Two Extracts from a Manuscript Copy of Hardyng's Chronicle, among the Harleian Manuscripts in the British Museum, communicated by Henry Ellis, *Esq., F.A.S.* — The first of these transcripts contains the Letter of Defiance which the insurgent lords sent to Henry IV. just before the battle of Shrewsbury; of the curious latinity of which, one specimen will suffice:

"*Item ponimus, dicimus, et probare intendimus quod Tu, tunc temporis quando dominus Ricardus Rex noster et tuus fuit sic ex horribili murdro mortuus ut supra, Tu extorcisti, usurpasti, et deforciasti Regnum Anglie ac omnen et honorem Regni Francie injuste contra juramentum tuum ob Edmundo Mortymore Comite Marchie, tunc proximo et directo herede Anglie et Francie, immediate et hereditarie post decessum predicti Ricardi successuro unde perjuratus et falsus es.*"

No doubt exists of the fact here stated, that Mortimer Earl of Marche stood before Henry in the order of succession, and had a preferable right to the throne: but Mortimer was a boy; and the victory obtained by Henry at Shrewsbury over the assertors of Mortimer's claims settled the crown on the head of the former, and enabled him to transmit it to his son. Thus the possession of the crown purges all defects of title, and time converts that into right which, at the commencement, was usurpation.

The second of these extracts contains Hardyng's statement of a conversation with the Earl of Northumberland, relative to the spurious Chronicle said to have been forged by John of Gaunt, in which Edmund Crouchback was made the eldest son of King Henry the Third. Hardyng pronounces this Chronicle to have been a forgery.

Observations on the Situation of Camulodunum, in a Letter from Thomas Walford, *Esq., F.A.S.*—After some reproof bestowed on Camden for his hasty opinion respecting Malden being the *Camulodunum of the Romans*, Mr. W. produces abundant evidence to shew that Colchester must have been the precise situation of the first colony of the Romans in Great Britain. 'Coins without number, tessellated pavements, bricks, and pieces of pottery, are found scattered over the whole surface of the town to this hour; and the walls (the most perfect in regard to their form and to their masonry) still surround a part of the present town of Colchester.' The remains of pavements at West Mersey, in Mersey Island, tend to confirm Mr. Walford's supposition that the Romans first landed on this part of our coast, and preferred the situation of Colchester for their first colony; and that this was the *Colonia Camulodunum* of Richard of Cirencester.

[*To be continued.*]

ART. IX. *An Inquiry into the Process of Nature in repairing Injuries of the Intestines:* illustrating the Treatment of penetrating Wounds, and strangulated Hernia. By Benjamin Travers, Demonstrator of Anatomy at Guy's Hospital, &c. 8vo. 1 5*s* Boards. Longman and Co. 1812.

WE learn from the preface that the object of this work is to ascertain the nature of one of those restorative processes, inherent in the constitution, by which injuries inflicted on a part are spontaneously repaired. It has been noticed, with respect to wounds of the intestines, that, although many instances are on record in which spontaneous recovery has taken place, yet

yet almost every attempt to attain this object by artificial means has proved unsuccessful. By comparing the results of experiments, made expressly for the purpose of illustration, with well-authenticated histories, we may justly hope to discover the cause of this apparent contradiction, and to establish a rational and consistent mode of practice. The state of opinion on the subject is tolerably uniform; since, although cases of recovery are not rare in which it is certain that the intestines have been wounded, and considerably, yet these have been regarded as instances of extraordinary occurrence, in which some unknown cause tended to counteract the usual effect of such injuries, and have not been viewed as affording either a ground for hope or any guide for practice on ordinary occasions.

The author divides wounds of the intestines into two species, *simple* and *complicated*, according as they occur with or without a wound of the abdominal parietes. The first question to which he directs his attention is, whether, in wounds which do not protrude externally, the contents of the intestines are evacuated into the cavity of the abdomen. Experiments which were performed on dogs, for the purpose of ascertaining this point, shew that effusion is neither a necessary nor even a frequent consequence of such wounds; and that, when it does take place, it seems to depend on the bowels being distended, the wound being large, or the abdomen containing some extravasated fluid. The equable pressure which is made on all the viscera appears to be the chief reason for effusion not taking place; since, as it does not occur after death, it is argued that it must depend on some passive force, and not on active resistance, connected with any of the vital functions. The conclusions of Mr. Travers on this point seem to be well founded and decisive; and they are the more important as being directly opposed to the popular opinion:

'I might,' he says, 'have extended this research, but it appears already sufficient to justify the assertion, that effusion is a very rare consequence of penetrating wounds. I repeat, that it can only happen where the gut is full and the wound extensive. I have abundant proof that if these circumstances are uncombined, effusion does not ensue. Some modification of this statement is required in the case of an interposed fluid, for reasons before assigned.'

Effusion is found to be a more common consequence of *simple* wounds of the intestines: but this seems to depend entirely on the nature of the wound, which in these cases is more frequently owing to ulceration, or to the effect of a blow, destroying or injuring a large surface, so as to produce an absolute loss of substance. After having cited a number of cases in proof of this opinion, the author concludes

'That effusion is not restrained by the integrity of the abdominal parietes, nor in any degree promoted by the division of them to an extent insufficient to admit of a prolapse of the intestine. This circumstance therefore yields no explanation of the greater tendency to effusion in the latter class of injuries. I should explain it by the difference in the nature of the injury which the bowel sustains, when perforated by a sword or bullet as in the one case, or burst or ulcerated as in the other. A rupture by concussion could only take place under a distended state of the bowel, a condition most favourable to effusion, and from the texture of the part, a rupture so produced would seldom be of limited extent. The process of ulceration by which an aperture is formed, commences in the *internal* coat of the bowel, which has always incurred a more extensive læsion than the peritoneal covering. The puncture or cut is merely a solution of continuity in a point or line, the ulcerated wound is an actual loss of substance. The consequence of this difference is, that while the former if small is glued up by the effusion from the cut vessels, or if large is nearly obliterated by the full eversion of the villous coat, the latter is a permanent orifice.'

We have next a chapter on peritoneal inflammation, considered as a consequence of wounds of the intestines. It has been observed that the subsequent inflammation does not always bear a proportion to the extent or severity of the wound; sometimes it appears as if the edges merely were inflamed; while at other times it extends over the whole of the abdominal cavity, giving rise to the most dangerous symptoms. Both as a means of prevention and of cure, bleeding must be regarded as of the first importance.—The author illustrates this part of his subject by the relation of well-authenticated cases, and by original experiments; and from them he endeavours to trace out the process by which reparation after these injuries takes place. A remarkable appearance, which was always found after the division of any considerable part of the intestine, was the eversion and contraction of the divided orifice. The first effect of this eversion and contraction is to prevent the escape of the contents of the bowel, provided it be not filled at the time of the division; another consequence is the recession of the divided parts to some distance from each other. The adhesive inflammation, however, now supervenes, attaches the loose ends of the intestine to the contiguous parts, and forms a species of pouch; by which the substances, that would otherwise be effused into the cavity of the abdomen, are retained. This may be, in some measure, regarded as a salutary operation: but still it does not appear that the part can ever be completely restored to its natural state. When the division of the intestine is only partial, the reparation, under favourable circumstances, may be accomplished; retraction is here prevented;

vented; and the divided edge may unite itself to the neighbouring parts, so as to supply the deficiency. Retraction would seem indeed to be the principal obstacle to the recovery; for in the most serious injuries, such as an intus-susception, when the inclosed part of the gut has become gangrened, and when the same state has supervened in herniæ, a considerable length of intestine has been cast off, and yet the patient has recovered, because in both these instances the parts have been kept in contact.

Mr. Travers then gives an interesting chapter on ligatures and sutures, a subject which he has also illustrated by experiment. The conclusions drawn from these and his former experiments, compared with the facts which have been noticed by himself and others, are so important, that we think our readers will be gratified by having them quoted at full length:

'1. Effusion of the intestinal matters rarely takes place in penetrating wounds. The impediment to effusion consists, first, in the resistance which the mechanism of the abdomen opposes, and secondly, in the circumstances contingent upon and peculiar to intestinal wounds. By the former statement I mean the general contact and equal pressure before explained; by the latter, the processes of eversion, contraction, and peritoneal adhesion.

'2. Effusion of the intestinal matters more readily takes place from lacerated and ulcerated apertures, because in these the combination of the causes of impediment is destroyed.

'3. The uniform contiguity of the peritoneal surfaces, and the ready disposition of these surfaces to assume the adhesive inflammation, are the means provided by Nature for the reparation of intestinal wounds and injuries.

'4. By these means punctured and small-incised wounds, transverse or longitudinal, and apertures from excision of substance, readily admit of spontaneous cure.

'5. It is even possible under certain conditions that after a wound by which the intestine is half divided, the tube may be imperfectly restored upon the same principle; but wounds amounting to a *direct* division of the canal are irreparable, and therefore invariably fatal.

'6. Where the division is *indirect*, as by the operation of a stricture, natural or artificial, the injury admits of speedy and perfect recovery.

'7. Where a ligature includes a portion of the paries intestinalis, the process of reparation is precisely similar to that which takes place where no ligature is employed, viz. the adhesive inflammation margining the ulcerated wound in one case, and the simple incised wound in the other, attaches the adjacent peritoneal surface.

'8. Ligatures of every description, unconfined at the external wound, separate into the canal and pass off with its contents: not from any law of the economy which has been adduced in explanation of some similar invariable phenomena, of which the cause was not obvious, but from their speedy and complete investment by the uniting medium.

'9. The

'9. The union of a divided bowel requires the contact of the cut extremities in their entire circumference, effectively to resist the muscular action opposed to an artificial connection during the process of union. The species of suture employed is of secondary importance if it secures this contact.

'10. The mode of reparation, adopted in those wounds of the intestines which are connected by artificial means, proceeds upon the same uniform principle as is exhibited in spontaneous repairs. But the effect is varied, inasmuch as retraction of the divided parts being in the former prevented, the cylinder of the intestine is preserved by a process of independent union, whereas in the latter the union is effected entirely by the medium of surrounding parts.'

The subject of *complicated* wounds, in which the fæces have been discharged externally, is treated with not less ability than the former, but on this our limits will not permit us to enter; which, indeed, we the less regret because our object is to give only such a specimen of the work as may induce every medical man to peruse it for himself. We must, however, dwell some time on the latter part of the volume, which consists principally of practical observations on the method that should be pursued in injuries of the intestines; both such as proceed from accidental causes, and still more in those that are connected with hernia. On the last point, we think that Mr. Travers has displayed an unusual share of judgment and sagacity; and we have no doubt that his work will have a considerable influence on future practice. We think that he has proved that the disgusting and loathsome condition, which sometimes occurs after hernia when the fæces continue during the remainder of life to be discharged through a præternatural opening, may be in most cases avoided. We also believe him to be decidedly right in advising that the stricture should not be removed, when the intestine has discharged its contents into the sac; and that the best chance for the future recovery of the patient consists in leaving the parts *in situ*, after having procured the free evacuation of them. Mr. Travers argues with much force of reasoning in favor of the opinion that the symptoms of strangulation always arise from obstruction; concluding that stricture, considered in itself, is neither the cause of peritoneal inflammation nor dangerous to life, and that its bad effects depend entirely on its offering a permanent obstruction to the functions of the alimentary canal. From this position is deduced a most important consequence, that the mere removal of the stricture, and even the reduction of the intestine, will not be followed by remission of the symptoms, unless the part so far retains its natural powers as to be able to propel its contents. That recovery does frequently not take place after reduction, when a gangrene has occurred, is too well known to every one; and

Mr. T.'s remarks render it highly probable that in these cases the intestine is in a palsied state, and that consequently the obstruction remains, although the mechanical obstacle is removed.

A very interesting part of the Inquiry consists in the remarks of the author on the treatment which is to be pursued when gangrene has actually taken place, and the contents are discharged into the sac. Here, as in many instances, the most successful plan appears to be that in which the least is attempted: the gangrened part should be left to slough naturally, and no attempt should be made to close the external opening; it will certainly close as soon as the intestines below it are in a condition to receive the fæces. When the structure of the intestine is so much injured as to render it probable that its functions cannot be restored, it must be opened, and its contents discharged; it must then be left in the sac, and the attention must be directed almost entirely to procuring a free discharge of the contents. A judicious and amusing historical sketch is given of the various opinions that have been entertained, respecting the practice which is to be pursued under such circumstances; Petit, Gooch, and the present Mr. Lawrence, are the writers whose hypotheses and practice appear to have been most correct: while on this subject, as on many others, we find the most fanciful and contradictory opinions advanced by men of real ingenuity.

To the merits of this very valuable and interesting publication we give our unequivocal testimony. If we have any objection to offer, it is one of secondary importance, and yet not altogether to be overlooked. The style in which it is written is unfortunately obscure and involved, and has frequently an air of affectation; which would be displeasing, were not our attention so entirely occupied by the matter as to make us almost disregard the manner in which it is conveyed. A little more practice will remedy this defect; and we confidently expect that an author, who has accomplished so much in his first attempt, will continue his exertions in favor of his profession and of general science.

ART.

ART. X. *Mathematical Lectures*, in Two Volumes; first, *On Elements of Algebra:* designed for the Use of the Students of East-India College, and such other young Persons as may be desirous of making themselves thoroughly acquainted with the first Principles of that Science. Second Edition, corrected and enlarged. Vol. II. *On the Elements of Plane Trigonometry*, with the Method of constructing Tables of Natural and Logarithmic Sines, Cosines, Tangents, &c. By the Rev. B. Bridge, A.M., Fellow of St. Peter's College, Cambridge, and Professor of Mathematics in the East-India College. 8vo. 15s. Boards. Cadell and Davies.

IT appears from the preface that these volumes were first published separately, and that the Lectures on Algebra have been so favourably received as to induce the author to issue this second and enlarged edition of them. In its present shape vol. i. contains fifteen lectures; the first of which states the definitions and the symbols that constitute the algebraic notation, together with the peculiarities which distinguish the language of algebra from that of common arithmetic. The second, third, and fourth lectures give the application of the fundamental rules of arithmetic to algebraic quantities, with rules for extracting the square and cube roots in numbers, and the method of applying the binomial theorem to the expansion of infinite series. In lectures v. vi. and vii., Mr. Bridge discusses the management and reduction of simple and quadratic equations, with their application to the solution of problems. Nos. viii. and ix. relate to the doctrine of ratios and proportions, and (according to the author's own statement) contain the substance of the 5th book of Euclid's Elements. The tenth is on variable quantities; the eleventh, on arithmetic progression; the twelfth, on geometrical progression; the thirteenth, on surds; the fourteenth, on logarithims; and the fifteenth is on miscellaneous subjects, as unlimited and diophantine problems, the properties of numbers, &c.

Mr. Bridge observes of these Lectures that,

'In their original form, they were intended only for the use of the Students of the East-India College: but I have the satisfaction to know that they have already been introduced into schools, and other seminaries of public and private education. Of works which relate to the *higher branches* of Mathematical learning, there is, in this country, no scarcity whatever; but of good *elementary* books in this department of general Literature, I believe the number at present to be very inconsiderable. How far I have succeeded in supplying this deficiency by the present treatise on the *Elements of Algebra*, must be left for others to judge: I can only say, that some pains have been taken to give it all the perspicuity and simplicity which the subject will admit of, and to present it in a form most likely to engage the attention of young persons just entering upon their Mathematic

matical Studies. I can moreover with confidence assert, that the substance of the Lectures contained in it is perfectly within the comprehension of Students at the age of *fifteen or sixteen*, that being the average age of those to whom these Lectures have been read.'

The work is certainly calculated for beginners only; and its principal merit consists in its simplicity and perspicuity. At the same time, we must observe that it includes scarcely any thing which has not long ago been published in *compendia* of instruction for academical youth.

The author's observations respecting the nature of the signs + and —, at the beginning of the 2d lecture, are these:

'Before I proceed to shew the method of applying the fundamental rules of Arithmetic to Algebraic quantities, it will be necessary to make a few observations respecting the nature of the symbols + and —, which are distinguished from all the other signs and symbols, by giving a kind of *quality* or *affection*, to the quantities to which they are annexed. As all those terms which have the sign + prefixed to them are to be *added*, and those which have the sign — prefixed to them are to be *subtracted* from the terms which *precede* them, the *former* have a tendency to *increase*, and the *latter* to *diminish*, the quantities with which they are combined. It seems to have been therefore from this circumstance that Algebraic quantities of the form $+a$, $+b$, $+cx$, &c., have received the denomination of *positive* or *affirmative* quantities, and those of the form $-a$, $-b$, $-cx$, &c. that of *negative* quantities. Not that these positive and negative quantities differ *essentially* from each other, but only *in the effects produced upon the quantities with which they are combined.* Thus $x+a$ means the *sum* of x and a, and $x-a$ means the *difference* of x and a; and to know whether this difference is *positive* or *negative*, we must refer $x-a$ to some *third* quantity c; if x be *greater* than a, then $c+x-a$ (since x is *added* and a *subtracted*) is *greater* than c; if x be *less* than a, then $c+x-a$ is *less* than c; i. e. if x be *greater* than a, the difference is *positive*; if x be *less* than a, the difference is *negative*. If x be *equal* to a, then the expression $c+x-a$ becomes $c+a-a$; and since in this case the *same* quantity is both *added* and *subtracted*, *no effect* is produced upon c, or in other words $+a-a=0$: when, therefore, quantities of the form $+a$ and $-a$ are combined together, they *counteract* each other's effects, and are said to *destroy each other*.'

Now, although these remarks be perfectly just, we cannot regard the following explanation, which Mr. Bridge gives of + and — in multiplication and division, as altogether unexceptionable:

'In the course of this lecture, I have uniformly adhered to the idea suggested at the beginning of it, of considering the symbols + and — as merely indicative of the relations which Algebraic quantities stand in to each other, with respect to their *addition* or *subtraction*; and in conformity to this definition of *positive* and *negative* quantities, I shall explain the rule for the multiplication and division of the signs.

'1. If

'1. If $+a$ is to be multiplied by $+b$, it means, that $+a$ is to be *added* to itself as often as there are units in b, and consequently the product will be $+ab$.

'2. If $-a$ is to be multiplied by $+b$, it means, that $-a$ is to be *added* to itself as often as there are units in b, and therefore the product is $-ab$.

'3. If $+a$ is to be muliplied by $-b$, it means, that $+a$ is to be *subtracted* as often as there are units in b, and consequently the product is $-ab$.

'4. If $-a$ is to be multiplied by $-b$, it means, that $-a$ is to be *subtracted* as often as there are units in b; and, since to *subtract a negative quantity* is the same as *to add a positive one*, the product will be $+ab$.

'Or, these four rules might be all comprehended in *one*; thus,

'To multiply $a-b$ by $c-d$, is to add $a-b$ to itself as often as there are units in $c-d$; now this is done by *adding* it c *times* and *subtracting* it d *times*,

'But $a-b$, *added* c *times* . . . $=ac-bc$,
and $a-b$, *subtracted* d *times* $=-ad+bd$,
$\therefore \overline{a-b} \times \overline{c-d}$ . . . . . $=ac-bc-ad+bd$.

'or, in other words,

$$+a \times +c = +ac$$
$$-b \times +c = -bc$$
$$+a \times -d = -ad$$
$$-b \times -d = +bd.$$

'The rules for the signs in Division follow immediately from those in Multiplication; thus,

'If $+a \times +b = +ab$, then $\frac{+ab}{+a} = +b$, and $\frac{+ab}{+b} = +a$
$+a \times -b = -ab$, . . $\frac{-ab}{+a} = -b$, and $\frac{-ab}{-b} = +a$
$-a \times -b = +ab$, . . $\frac{+ab}{-a} = -b$, and $\frac{+ab}{-b} = -a$

} i. e. *like* signs produce $+$, and *unlike* signs $-$.'

This illustration is not general enough to be satisfactory in algebraic operations, since it extends only to the case in which b is an integer, or composed of units. Multiplication, indeed, properly so called, is that which is carried on by integers, when a new number is sought that is so many times greater than the multiplicand as the multiplier is greater than unity: but, from a want of better and more appropriate terms, multiplication, multiplicand, product, and multiplier, are used in fractions, in surds, and even in concrete quantities, to find a new quantity, which has the same ratio (whatever it be, whether it be that of two commensurable or two incommensurable magnitudes,) to the multiplicand, that the multiplier bears to unit

unity. Now the product in algebraic language of $a-b$ (the excess of a above b) by c is the excess of the product ac above the product bc, and is therefore expressed by $ac-bc$, or ac less bc; and in like manner the product of $a-b$ by $c-d$ is the excess of the product $ac-bc$ above the product $ad-bd$, or is equal to what remains when $ad-bd$ is taken from $ac-bc$ or added to the same with the signs changed; which excess is of course equal to $ac-bc-ad+bd$, whether the relations between a, b, c, and d be those of commensurable or incommensurable magnitudes. The reason is the same for which like signs give +, and unlike —, in division; which, properly so called, is carried on by integers, or whole numbers, as well as multiplication.

In the usual manner, Mr. Bridge expresses ratios by arithmetical or algebraic fractions. He says that his doctrine of ratios and proportions contains the substance of the 5th book of Euclid's Elements. It is, however, applicable only to commensurable magnitudes, and bears no resemblance either in point of universality or satisfactory demonstration to that subtile and beautiful element, which displays the groundwork and principles of the whole mathesis of the antients. Mr. B.'s principal theorems on proportion are identical, indeed, with some of the propositions in the 7th book of Euclid, which relates only to numbers. He remarks that 'when four quantities (a, b, c, d) are proportional, the first divided by the second is equal to the third divided by the fourth, or $\frac{a}{b}$ is $=\frac{c}{d}$.' This he calls a fundamental principle; and, on the other hand, he observes that 'if $\frac{a}{b}$ be $=\frac{c}{d}$, it follows that $a:b::c:d$,' and he makes this the *test of proportionality* in all his theorems on the subject. He might as well have said that, when four quantities are proportional, the second divided by the first is equal to the fourth divided by the third. This is nothing but the common arithmetical mode of considering ratio and proportion, which is to be found in almost every modern elementary treatise for the use of schools and seminaries, and is peculiarly calculated for giving young men and students a vitiated taste in mathematics, instead of just and correct ideas of the antient mathesis. With the exception, however, of this defect, we regard the present as one of the best elementary treatises on algebra now in use.

Vol. ii. contains, first, six lectures on Plane Trigonometry; which lay down, in a very clear, satisfactory, and concise manner, the customary definitions and use of the science; the measures of angles; the division of the circle; the investigation of formulæ for the construction of trigonometrical tables; the con-

construction of a table of natural sines, cosines, versed sines, tangents, &c., with the investigation of formulæ of verification; the construction of logarithmic tables; the solution of the cases of plane triangles, both right-angled and oblique; and the mensuration of heights and distances. In the second part, which treats briefly of the conic sections, Mr. B. does not pretend to any originality except in the arrangement of the subject, and a desire to render it plain and intelligible to ordinary readers. It consists of eight lectures; in the first of which he describes the nature of the curves that arise from the cutting of a cone *obliquely* to its base, (for the circle may be regarded as a section of one parallel to its base,) and the mode of describing these on a plane. The second treats on the Parabola; the third, on the Ellipse; and the fourth on the Hyperbola. The fifth is a very perspicuous and neat lecture on the Curvature of the Conic Sections. In the beginning of it, after having spoken briefly of curvature in general and its variation, the author gives four perspicuous and satisfactory theorems in explanation of it, derived from the doctrine of ultimate ratios. Lecturev vi. is on the analogous properties of the above three conic sections; the viith, on the method of finding the dimensions of conic-sections, of which the *Latera-recta* are stated, and of describing such as shall pass through certain given points; and the viiith relates to the quadrature of those sections, towards the end of which is given the quadrature of the parabola, according to the method of the antients. In order to prove that a tangent to any point in a parabola bisects the angle formed at that point by a right line drawn from it to the focus, and another drawn through it parallel to the axis, Mr. Bridge has recourse to the doctrine of indefinitely little magnitudes, and supposes a part of the curve to coincide with a part of the tangent. This, however, is not a very legitimate method of demonstration; and we see no necessity for such a supposition to prove that property.

We have observed some errors in both volumes which are not contained in the lists of errata: but these the author will naturally discover and correct.

MONTHLY CATALOGUE,

For OCTOBER, 1812.

ANTIQUITIES, &c.

Art. 11. *Antiquarian and Topographical Cabinet*, containing a Series of Elegant Views of the most interesting Objects of Curiosity in Great Britain. Accompanied with Letter-press Descriptions. Vols. v. vi. vii. viii. ix. and x. Crown 8vo. 15s. each Volume. Boards. Clarke.

We

We have more than once spoken of this work in terms of high commendation; and the present volumes are in the same elegant style with the former, each containing fifty highly-finished engravings, accompanied by descriptions of the places represented. Though the views have not all equal merit, we have scarcely ever met with so long a series, of which the subjects were so judiciously selected, and the engravings so ably executed. Indeed, the publication fully answers its title: it may be truly called *a Topographical Cabinet*; and we congratulate our readers on the opportunity of enriching their libraries with so many elegant views, at a comparatively moderate price. The design is now completed.

EDUCATION.

Art. 12. *Grammatical Questions*, adapted to the Grammar of Lindley Murray; with Notes. By C. Bradley, A.M. Master of Wallingford School. 12mo. pp. 107. 2s. 6d. Boards. Longman and Co.

To those teachers who make use of Mr. Murray's valuable Grammar, the work before us will be a welcome assistant. It often happens that young persons get the rules of grammar by rote, and the master is deceived with respect to the improvement of his pupils: but, by putting such a tract as the present into their hands, and requiring them to return answers either verbally or in writing, he will be enabled to discover what progress they really make. In order to allure the pupil, the author recommends that he should be at first desired to prepare the answers out of the Grammar; and when he has made some advancement, that he be obliged to refer to his memory for that purpose. The Notes, which are supplementary to the information in Mr. Murray's Grammar, are interesting and important. The authors to whom the writer acknowleges himself principally indebted are Blair, Valpy, Crombie, and Kett; and had he in every instance subscribed the note with the name of its author we should have been the more gratified.

Art. 13. *A Series of Questions, adapted to Dr. Valpy's Latin Grammar*; with Notes. By C. Bradley, M.A. Small 12mo. pp. 114. Longman and Co.

Dr. Valpy's Latin Grammar was commended in M. R. Vol. lxviii. O. S. p. 360. and Vol. v. N. S. p. 101.; and the questions which the pages before us contain are well appropriated to exercise the young student in its several rules. The notes subjoined to the text supply valuable and interesting information to the more advanced student. The publications, from which the author acknowleges that he has derived many of them, are Dr. Ruddiman's Grammar, Dr. Carey's Prosody, and Mr. Jones's Grammar: but he has omitted to favour his readers with the account of the works from which they have been severally extracted, which we consider as a defect. When persons are pleased with the perusal of ingenious remarks, they feel a strong desire to be made acquainted with the name of the writer to whom they are obliged.

Art. 14. *A new elementary Grammar of the English Language*; with an Appendix, containing a Scheme for teaching Grammatical Composition on a new Principle. By John Fenwick. 12mo. pp. 116. Wilkie and Robinson.

Mr. Fenwick professes to offer only an elementary grammar, and as such his book has considerable merit. It contains sufficient to excite the attention, without burdening it with prolixity; and, though not marked by any puerility, its language is clear, conciliating, and adapted to the comprehension of young minds. In the commencement, the author considers the subject in a philosophic view, assigning reasons for the invention of the several parts of speech in the formation of language; and, throughout the whole work, considerable taste and judgment are displayed. The arrangement, however, of the conjugations of the auxiliary verbs (p. 37—45.) is not natural; because those of the simple auxiliaries *do*, *shall*, *will*, *may*, are placed after the conjugations of *have*, and *be*, although they form parts of several of the tenses of the latter, and therefore should be first introduced. The exercises for grammatical composition are ingenious; and, with close attention, or with the assistance of a skilful teacher, they may be useful to the young student.

Art. 15. *Preceptor and his Pupils*, Part the Third: or, the most familiar Synonymes in the English Language critically and etymologically illustrated. For the Use of Schools, and private Students. By George Crabb. 12mo. pp. 237. 4s. 6d. Boards. Boosey.

Although in the former parts of this composition * the author seemed to have exhausted his subject, or at least to have completed his plan, yet his ingenuity and industry have enabled him to produce another equally commendable. The part before us contains critical and etymological illustrations of the most familiar synonymes in the English language, and is not only well calculated to make the young scholar acquainted with the minutiæ of his native tongue, but will also enable him to acquire considerable knowlege of other languages. The method which the author has taken is, in the first instance, to describe the general circumstances in which several synonymous terms agree, and then, by particularizing their individual meanings, to shew in what respect they differ; and, in order to engage the attention of the student, several of the lessons are concluded in dialogues, with recapitulations of remarks before delivered. With respect to the explanations given, we do not agree with the author in every instance; and we are inclined to believe that he has more than once considered, as general acceptations, the meanings of words which are confined to particular districts. On this account, therefore, we would advise him, before he publishes another edition, to submit the work to the correcting hand of some literary friend. The imperfections, however, are mere trifles when compared with the merit of the whole.

* For Part II. see the M. R. for April 1809.

Art.

5. *A New and Improved Grammar of the English Tongue,* he Use of Schools. In which the Genius of our Speech is cially attended to, and the discoveries of Mr. Horne Tooke, ther modern Writers on the Formation of Language are for irst Time incorporated. By William Hazlitt. To which is d, A New Guide to the English Tongue. In a Letter to W. F. Mylius, Author of the School Dictionary. By Edward win, Esq. 18mo. pp. 205. Godwin.

ng the various publications with which the press teems on the of English Grammar, the tract before us, although small in nce, claims particular notice: since, differing from most late of the kind, which chiefly consist of selections from former tions, with more or less variation of phrase, we here meet with which is both useful and new. The author considers his subosophically, and his researches evince no small depth of pene-

Confident of his own powers, he hesitates not to depart e first-rate authorities when he sees occasion, but takes care do this without assigning his reasons, which he delivers with rce and clearness. Had we room, we should select from the his sentiments respecting the Substantive and Adjective; and rks on the Verb are also new and ingenious.

New Guide to the English Tongue, by Mr. Baldwin, is a appendage. Here the several prefixes and terminations are ; and the several meanings, which primitive words gain by mpounded with them, are shewn in a pleasing and perspicuous

gh this little volume professes to be intended for the use of , and may be very serviceable in that application, yet the more d student will find it to contain much useful and interesting tion; the definitions are concise, yet intelligible; the rules r and important; and the examples selected are perspicuous ropriate.

. *Outlines of English Grammar.* Partly abridged from Mr. itt's New and Improved Grammar of the English Language. dward Baldwin, Esq. 18mo. 1s. Godwin.

e Outlines are so much connected with the preceding Grammar, cannot report the merits of the former better than by a com- with the latter. Mr. Baldwin professes that he has partly d from Mr. Hazlitt; and this is done with creditable judg- oth in selection and condensation. The merit of the present owever, does not consist merely in this, since the language and ment are improved, and much important matter is introduced; attention is also paid to the subject of parsing, and to gram- resolution; so that, with respect to itself, and independent H.'s Grammar, this tract has considerable value. On com- he general merits of the two, the 'Outlines' will be found articularly appropriated to the use of schools and young , and the other to the improvement of the more advanced ; and, though each has defects, they are much more than balanced. Were the best parts of the two treatises conso- with ability and judgment, a publication of standard merit e formed.

We must not, however, omit to notice an impropriety of diction which is adopted by most authors, but which we should not have expected from writers of such general accuracy as Mr. Hazlitt and Mr. Baldwin. 'A vowel,' say they, 'is an articulate sound;' when, according to their own phraseology, they ought to have said, "a vowel *represents* an articulate sound." The same observation is alike applicable to their definitions of semi-vowels and consonants. In the former work, previously to the list of the letters, they are said to be *as follows*, and a rule is given in the course of the volume to justify the use of the phrase: but in the corresponding sentence in the latter which, as succeeding the other, might be expected to be more accurate, the letters are said to be *as follow*; yet no rule, nor reason, is given for the alteration.

Art. 18. *English Grammar, taught by Examples rather than by Rules of Syntax*, &c. 12mo. pp. 88. 2s. bound. Darton and Co.

In the preface to this treatise, the writer does not profess much: but that which he promises he seems for the most part to have accomplished. He says that 'he does not intend to assert that grammar can be critically and scientifically learnt without a comprehensive knowlege of the rules of syntax, but that his work proposes only to embrace utility; to enable a young person to understand the English language so as to be competently qualified to write letters correctly, and to detect errors in books and conversation.' Although we cannot comprehend how a person can be enabled to write correctly, and detect errors in written or oral language, without a knowlege of the rules of syntax, yet the work may be of considerable use to young ladies, who, from the frequent occurrence of technical terms in other treatises, may be disheartened from making any progress in the science; and to others who may not have opportunity or inclination to attend to larger and more scientific books.

Art. 19. *English Grammar:* containing, I. Orthography, which treats of the Sounds and Use of Letters, with Rules for dividing Words into Syllables. II. Prosody, which shews the proper Pronunciation of Words, and the Art of making Verse. III. Etymology, which explains the several Parts of Speech, their Derivations, and different Endings, Changes, and Likeness to one another. IV. Syntax, which teaches how to connect Words together in Sentences, &c. To which are added Rules for attaining an easy, accurate Style in Speaking and Writing; Examples declined; Exercises of bad English under the Rules of Syntax; the Use of Stops and Marks; a Table of Abbreviations; with Directions for addressing Persons in Discourse and Writing. 12mo. pp. 103. Printed at Barnsley.

After having perused so copious a title-page, the reader may possibly conclude that it belongs to a work of the first eminence on the subject, but in this case he will feel himself considerably disappointed. As the author professes to give rules for attaining an easy and accurate style, in speaking and writing, we expected in the first place that his own language should be correct: but we met with sentences

at the commencement, of which the purity is very questionable. As we proceeded, we encountered several observations which were both new and valuable; yet so many occurred which required correction in meaning or expression, that they not only neuteralized the merit of the others, but rendered the whole a work which a stickler for accuracy would hesitate to put into the hands of young persons. Indeed, we cannot help thinking that such a critic, considering that the country 'is so replete with treatises on Grammar,' as the writer says, would add that, if the author had still 'kept his ideas of the subject to himself,' the public would be no great losers; and he would be also disposed to advise him not to permit himself for the future to be induced by his '*pupils* and others,' equally incompetent, to offer his sentiments to the world without first consulting persons of more judgment and experience.

POETRY.

Art. 20. *Elephantasmagoria;* or the Covent Garden Elephant's Entrance into Elysium: being a Letter from the Shade of Garrick, to John Philip Kemble, Esq. By Sappho. 8vo. 2s. Cradock and Joy.

Would a male Muse talk of a *nine-thong'd dart?* No. The person concealed under the name of Sappho must in truth be a female;

'And who would use — (ah! surely no man)
A cat-o'-nine-tails to a woman?'

The motive was good, to laugh the British public out of their strange *rage* for horses and elephant-actors, before our play houses are converted into absolute amphitheatres: but Sappho should have considered that it is possible, by running into a tedious length, to make a poem against elephantic exhibitions as dull as any Covent-Garden elephant that ever trod the stage. This is a very gentle hint from critics who have read many pages with a wish to laugh, and have been disappointed. Sappho appears to have constructed her poem according to a recipe which we have heard given for making a sermon: "Have a good beginning and a good ending, and put whatever you like in the middle."

In the opening of the poem, the shade of Garrick thus inquires into the state of the modern theatre:

'Is it I prithee, brother, true,
Those boards, long grac'd by me and you,
Are stables made? — that horses prance,
And elephants are taught to dance,
Or move, with slow and aukward gait,
In pride of dress and pomp of state;
Usurp the costly robes of Kings—
Is this the present state of things?
Degraded age!—I'll not believe —
These caitiff slaves mean to deceive.'

This is the subject of the satire: but it would not be easy to fill 47 pages with rhymes on such a theme without a little *management*.

At the conclusion, Sappho, having exhausted her rigmarole, grows serious, and apostrophizes reflection:

'Oh, grave Reflection! thee I hail!
Let not my poor petition fail;
I'll incense on thine altars burn,
If Reason thou wilt but return;
Banish this folly's mazy round,
And strike the triflers to the ground;
Let intellect appear once more,
And wander on this blissful shore!
So shall it smile, from madness free,
Beneath thy blissful monarchy;
And all that's good, and all that's great,
Be sample of a British State!'

Art. 21. *Poetic Tales and Miscellanies.* 8vo. pp. 152. Printed at Liverpool; and sold in London by Longman and Co. 1812.

Though these poems are moral and harmonious, they exhibit no striking novelty of thought or powers of description; yet they will not be read entirely without interest, nor fail to obtain the limited meed of praise to which the fair writer bounds her wishes and expectations.

NOVELS.

Art. 22. *Silvanella, or the Gipsey.* 12mo. 4 Vols. 1l. 1s. Boards. Newman and Co. 1812.

The language of this novel is often ungrammatical, and never very animated: but it is not disfigured by affectation; and, though the story is improbable, some of the characters will excite interest. They are all made happy in consequence of virtuous conduct, or, *vice versa*, are punished for their crimes; and the book is as moral as most of the same class.

Art. 23. *The Empire of the Nairs;* or the Rights of Women. An Utopian Romance, in Twelve Books. By James Lawrence. 12mo. 4 Vols. 1l. 2s. Boards. Hookhams. 1811.

As this work is intitled 'A Romance,' we were prepared for some extravagance of fiction: but we did not expect that tissue of improbabilities of which this strange narrative is composed. The absurdity of the tale, however, is a very small objection compared with its tendency; which is to change, or rather to annihilate, the existing condition of civil society, and to reduce men and women to the mere gregarious state. Under the notion of asserting the rights of women, Mr. L. contends for a system of universal libertinism; and, to justify his licentious plan, he assumes as a fact that which is a complete fiction, that the empire of the Nairs (the chiefs of a people on the Malabar coast) flourished in these very circumstances. We are recommended to imitate the brutes, to discard every idea of an union by marriage between the sexes, and to cherish the most promiscuous intercourse. Males are to be regarded as made only for war and procreation, and females for prostitution. What motive could induce Mr. L. to send forth such a publication, we shall not venture to pronounce;

nounce; still less can we understand how the German Journals could be induced to praise it, as they are here said to have done: but of this we are persuaded, that marriage, with all its evils, cannot entail half those miseries on the world which this author's plan would eventually introduce.

RELIGIOUS.

Art. 24. תורה נביאים וכתובים. *Biblia Hebraica; secundum ultimam editionem Jos. Athiæ, a Johanne Leusden, denuo recognitam, recensita, atque ad Masoram, et correctiones Bombergi, Stephani, Plantini, aliorumque Editiones, exquisite adornata variisque Notis illustrata ab* Everardo Van der Hooght, *V. D. M. Editio nova, recognita et emendata,* à Josepho Samuele C. F. Frey, &c. *i. e.* A new Edition of E. Van der Hooght's Hebrew Bible, by the Rev. Joseph Samuel C. F. Frey. Conditions: 1. The greatest Diligence is using to render it a *fac simile* of Van der Hooght's (*Amst. et Ultraj.* MDCCV.) in its Pages, Letters, Points, Accents, marginal Notes, &c. II. It will be completed in Twelve Parts, each containing 128 Pages, on extra fine Paper, 8vo. at 4s. 6d. per Part; and a few Copies on fine Royal Octavo, at 6s. each Part. III. A Part will be published every other Month till completed. Printed at the Office of the London Society for promoting Christianity among the Jews; and sold by Longman and Co., &c.

Scholars who are acquainted with the eminent merit of Van der Hooght's Hebrew Bible, and who have lamented its advance in price in consequence of the scarcity of copies, will read with pleasure of the undertaking which we here announce. Few persons are qualified for the task which Mr. Frey has imposed on himself; and fewer still would submit to the drudgery of presenting the public with a new edition of the Hebrew Bible with all the Masoretic punctuation. This gentleman, however, has entered with zeal on the work, and we hope that he will be encouraged to persevere to its completion. It does not fall within the province of a Review to compare every letter and point of this new edition with the Hebrew Bible, of which it professes to be a *fac simile:* but justice to Mr. Frey obliges us to state his mode of proceeding, in order to render his work as accurate as possible; indeed, to give it an accuracy superior to that of Van der Hooght. He informs us that he has availed himself of the assistance of Hebrew compositors, most of whom knew the language from childhood; and that, in correcting the press, he has adopted the following method: A Jewish boy reads to him every letter, point, and accent, from Solomon Proop's Hebrew Bible, which is considered to be the most accurate ever published, and by these means several mistakes in Van der Hooght's edition have been corrected; and, lastly, the sheets are revised by a perfect Hebraist, (a converted Jew,) who has been engaged at a great expence.—After such an account, little doubt can be entertained of the superior excellence of this new edition of the Hebrew Scriptures with points. The letter is sharp, bold, and clear, and the whole is an elegant specimen of Hebrew typography. We have already received three parts, which include more than the *torah*, or Pentateuch; and we shall be happy to report

the arrival of the remaining parts, the publication of which will give us a very beautiful and complete Hebrew Bible.

Art. 25. *A Letter on Ecclesiastical Liberality*, addressed to the Rev. J. L. Martyn, A. M., Rector of St. George the Martyr, Queen's Square, London, &c. By the Rev. Thomas Jones, A. M. 8vo. pp. 54. 2s. Gale and Co. 1812.

Admitting the correctness of Mr. Jones's statement, he must be allowed to have reason for complaining of harsh treatment on the part of Mr. Martyn; who, after having engaged him as Sunday-morning preacher for twelve months, suddenly dismissed him from the preachership, because, in a charity-sermon delivered at St. George's church, Mr. Jones had espoused the Lancasterian system of education, and given it the preference to that of Dr. Bell. As the press is open, however, Mr. J. is not precluded from delivering his sentiments, though the pulpit of St. George the Martyr is shut against him; and the mode by which Mr. M. manifested his displeasure seems rather to have elevated than depressed Mr. Jones; who, like the ejected ministers of former days, stands forwards as the champion for Christian liberty in the fullest sense. His mind has been formed on the old-fashioned models of Erasmus, Chillingworth, Jeremy Taylor, Locke, and Jortin; and the followers of such men are not the best prepared for that obsequiousness which meets with reward in this world. Infinitely, however, as we prefer intrepidity and liberality of character to time-serving caution and timidity, we cannot always subscribe to the representations which men of the former stamp sometimes give of the actual complexion of the times. Mr. Jones has felt the effects of power: but it does not follow that 'the stream of persecution is certainly increasing;' and though we should not be inclined to believe the age to be so enlightened as some people assert, it is sufficiently wise to perceive that persecution is an unequivocal indication of imbecility, and paralyses the hand that employs it. A Protestant cannot renounce the right of private judgment; and if he demands this privilege for himself, he must concede it to his neighbour: hence toleration becomes indispensable. How far the clergy are disposed to tolerate each other, we will not decide: but of this we are confident that, if they would act on the principle of sound discretion, mutual liberality would be displayed: since, when the clergy "fall out by the way," they may fairly reckon on adding to what Mr. Burke very absurdly calls the *hortus siccus* of dissent.

MISCELLANEOUS.

Art. 26. *The Happy Briton, or his Country's Friend*; shewing the superior Advantages of being a Subject of this Country; with a few Hints to the People of North America, and a Description of the very fatal Earthquake at Caracca, in South America; to which is annexed the Siege and Surrender of Badajoz. 8vo. 1s. Sherwood and Co. 1812.

What a miscellany of prose and poetry! and, in these dear times, all for the small sum of twelve pence! To put Britons in high spirits, the author first enumerates the many blessings which they here enjoy, and then

then contrasts the state of this country with that of France under its present tyrannical and ambitious ruler. When he adverts to the case of America, he contends that 'she has acted impolitically in regard to herself and her true interests, and unfriendly to this country.' The declaration of war by the United States against Great Britain is attributed to French influence: but this is only a partial view of the subject. Taking a passing glance at our internal blessings, our 'angelic and beautiful women' attract peculiar notice; and a love-sonnet might have been expected from a pen which had just made so gallant a record: but, instead of effusions on the tender passion, we are presented with two poems, one descriptive of an earthquake and the other of a siege. This poetry, indeed, is very *so-so*. The melancholy catastrophe at Caracca is thus narrated:

'Ash-Wednesday thus in sacred duties past,
Now Holy-Thursday came, but prov'd their last!
To celebrate the day they glad prepare,
Their churches in extreme all crowded are.

'In one dread moment, horrible to tell,
Churches and houses on their persons fell.
An earthquake violent the town o'erthrew,
And of its population left but few.'

Such verse as this makes even an earthquake laughable.

Art. 27. *Letters addressed to the Editor of the Tyne Mercury, on the Annual Subscription to the Sons of the Clergy.* By W. Burdon. 8vo. 1s. Longman and Co. 1811.

This title does not prepare us for all the topics which are introduced in these letters; since, like a keen sportsman, Mr. B. overruns the game which he first started, and getting on a new scent enters on a very discursive chace. He begins with the clergy, and ends with deism. His first sentence accuses the former (especially the clergy of the diocese of Durham,) of indecency and impolicy in annually begging for the poor of their order. He contends that, as the annual revenue of the church in that diocese is 200,000l., the rich clergy ought to make a fund for the poor belonging to their body; and he appeals to the practice of the clergy of the Established Church of Scotland: but he does not correctly state the case, when he adds 'that the clergy of that church have not only raised a fund equal to the necessities of their own body, but now apply it to other purposes of benevolence.' If Mr. B. will read the Appendix to Dr. Somerville's Sermon for the sons of the clergy (noticed in this Rev. p. 223.), preached at Edinburgh May 17, 1811, he will find that the Scotch Fund is not adequate to the relief of the *daughters* of their ministers. Having charged our clergy with a want of liberality to their brethren, Mr. B. declaims against the riches of the clerical order, and ventures to assert that 'they have always done harm in proportion to their power.' He next pronounces the church to be only 'a corporation protected by the state, but not equal to it,' and therefore he condemns the phrase "Church and State" as 'a faulty expression;' 'for,' says he, 'the Church of England exists only as by law established, and the law itself

itself arises out of the Constitution, therefore that which owes its existence to the law cannot be a part of the Constitution.' Again, he observes, 'As a spiritual body, the church of Christ can have no connection with the state, and as a civil body it has no existence.' Since Mr. B.'s attack on the clergy is coupled with his infidel opinions, it is not likely to become popular; and he will be suspected of wishing to bring religion itself into discredit, when he attempts to degrade the sacred order.

Art. 28. *Practical Observations on the Prejudices against the Brewery;* wherein the true Principles of that Process, with the Causes of the Uncertainties experienced by private Families and others in brewing, are pointed out. 8vo. pp. 68. 3s. 6d. Boards. White and Cochrane. 1812.

Though the name of the author does not appear in this title, it occurs in the dedication; whence we learn that Mr. Baverstock of Alton, Hants, an old experienced brewer, has inscribed 'to his brethren in the brewery' this tract, intended to refute the calumnies which are circulated against them. According to his motto, ("*Difficilem oportet aurem habere ad crimina,*") we ought not to yield an easy credit to the rumours of tricks played by brewers; and yet, when inducements to try experiments are created, in consequence of the very high price of the articles from which beer ought to be manufactured, and when the beverage in common use is different from what it was in the good old times of our forefathers, the public are very fully justified in entertaining a suspicion that *secrets* exist in the brewery, as well as in other trades. Mr. B. has volunteered a defence of his brethren, and to a certain extent it is able and satisfactory: yet it is not sufficient to remove all the 'prejudices' which he encounters. No doubt can be entertained of the accuracy of Mr. B.'s following positions, viz. that good beer cannot be manufactured without good malt and hops,—that the strength of beer depends on the saccharine matter extracted from the malt,—that it is of essential importance that the barley should be well malted, and that the liquor when put on the malt should be of that degree of heat which is calculated to extract from it the greatest quantity of *saccharum*;—that skill and judgment are necessary in the management of the mashing and of the fermenting process;—and that, by the use of the thermometer and hydrometer, the business of the brewery may be conducted with more precision than without them. Every person, moreover, who travels, must notice the great variety of malt-liquors which he finds at different inns; a variety which arises from the different quality of the malt that is used, as well as from the different methods of mashing and the subsequent management of the worts; to which also may be added the different quality of the water employed. In manufacturing sound, genuine, *pale ale or beer*, barley malted in the best manner must be used with hops, which are moreover the best bitter that the brewer can find: but it is also certain that sugar can be substituted for malt, that other bitters than hops can be introduced, and that colouring and other ingredients may be employed to give an apparent strength to the liquor. Is Mr. Baverstock's *ipse dixit* to quash all the evidence which is adduced on the other side of the question? Will the

be persuade philosophical readers that nothing besides malt and hops enters into the composition of London porter? Is not that which is called the *heading* produced by an *addendum?* and when it is also found that much of the beverage sold for porter, if put into bottles, will grow *mothery*, rather than become *alive*, as it is called, is there not reason to believe that its apparent strength is not derived from the saccharine principle fermented, but from coloured liquors and infusions? This advocate for the public brewery would have us believe that no ingredients are so cheap as malt and hops, (dear as they may be,) but is he chemist enough to be sure of this fact? Besides, how do the *Brewers' Druggists* make fortunes? A *private brewer* never goes to a *druggist*.

If, however, we approach Mr. Baverstock with some degree of suspicion, as the professed advocate of the public brewer, we cannot withhold from him our thanks for those judicious principles which he lays down for the conduct of his brethren in the manufacture of our national beverage. The excellence of beer consists in its vinous spirituosity, its transparency, and its agreeable flavour without flatness or acidity. The merit of the brewer shews itself in obtaining all these qualities in the most expeditious way from the cheapest materials. It is of importance, also, to the public brewer, not only to produce a good but an uniform commodity; consequently, his whole progress should be the result of system and experience. The little volume before us affords excellent hints for this purpose. As the vinous spirit obtained is ever in proportion to the "sweet," Mr. B. is solicitous, that the mashing should be so conducted that the least possible quantity of the saccharum shall be left behind in the grains; and he endeavours to shew that, of the four cheapest sweets, viz. 'malt, treacle, sugar, and honey,' malt is the cheapest. The statement is as follows:

'The malts made in England differ greatly in their value and usefulness; insomuch, that 8 bushels of malt, made from well ripened barley, and in the Hertfordshire method, are equal in fermentable matter, to (and consequently will make as much beer, or vinous spirit, as) 195 lbs. of clean and dry powder sugar, 224 lbs. of honey, or 240 lbs. of treacle. While the same portion of malt, if made from inferior barley, or in the west country, or other coarse manner, is not more useful, for the same purpose, than 170 to 176 lbs. of the same sugar, or 196 lbs. of honey, or 210 lbs. of treacle.' —

'Taking then, *not the best malt* into the computation, but that of a middling quality, and estimating the cost of it at 80 shillings the quarter, in comparison with 180 lbs. of sugar at 9d, 224 lbs. of treacle at 4½d, and 208 lbs. of honey at 9d., the costs of an equal quantity of fermentable matter, producible from each, will be—malt —say 80—treacle 84—sugar 135—and honey 156 shillings.'

After having given a short history of the introduction of the thermometer and hydrometer into the brewery, Mr. B. digresses to a consideration of the use to which the latter instrument may be applied in ascertaining the strength of the juice expressed from the cane in the West Indies, and in the manufacture of sugar: but we shall not follow him into these details. It is evident that he wishes to discourage

discourage brewing in private families; since he expatiates on t loss sustained in small brewings compared with the large undertakin of the public brewers: but, if he had offered a few plain directio to assist those who still continue to brew their own table-beer, (*cause otherwise they can obtain none that is fit to drink,*) he would our judgment have displayed more public spirit than by endeavouri to make the scale turn so much in favour of the trading brewer.

'Each bushel of the best pale malt, such as is made after t Hertfordshire manner, and from well ripened barley, is equal to 24 25 lbs. of good powder sugar; but more than half the malt, co monly made, is equal to only 21 or 22 lbs. of sugar for each bush More than *another* eighth part is lost in the brewings of bushe instead of as many quarters, at each operation—and therefore, more fermentable matter is usually obtained from each bushel of i ferior malt than would be yielded by 16 or 18lb. of sugar. F there is no skill required in dissolving the sugar, as in mashing t malt, and therefore not an ounce of the first is wasted. Hence, t disadvantage of using sugar, instead of malt, is not nearly so gr to private families as to the common brewers—and the liquor bei free from all farinaceous matter, would become transparent a drinkable in much less time than the worts from malt. No loss co ensue to the revenue from such a practice; because the customs du on 18lb. of sugar is equal to the excise duty on a bushel of malt.

'The annual growth of barley in the kingdom is now estimated 4,800,000 quarters, of which 3,200,000 quarters have been usua malted—600,000 are wanted for seed, and the remainder is consum in food for man and cattle.

'Of the 3,200,000 quarters of malt, the common brewers u 1,600,000; the home-brewing publicans 800,000; and the private milies 800,000. It may be fairly said, that nearly three parts in eight the last two portions (or 500,000 quarters at the least) are wasted

We should think that, if private brewers were properly instructe and properly careful, it could not be fairly said that they wa '*nearly three-eights*' of the articles employed.—Throughout t whole of this essay, too much of the *esprit de corps* manifests itse Mr. B. evidently wishes to dissuade private families and inn-keep from making their own beer, in order to increase the business public breweries: but, if the rules laid down by Mr. Shore * in valuable little treatise were accurately followed, the waste which here deprecated could not occur, since Mr. Shore distinctly states th he so completely exhausts the virtue or saccharine principle of t malt, that hogs will not eat his grains. He as well as Mr. B. emplo the thermometer and hydrometer in the processes of beer-making.

Art. 29. *Memoir of the late Rev. J. T. Van der Kemp, M.D.*, M sionary in South Africa. By Order of the Directors of the M sionary Society. 8vo. 1s. Williams and Co. 1812.

It must be confessed that the Missionary Society has some reas to be proud of such an apostle as Dr. Van der Kemp, and we g

* See Rev. Vol. liii. N. S. p. 107.

its members credit for offering the memoirs of his life in a distinct publication, and at a very small price. We thank them for presenting us with this curious morsel of biography, and we hope that it will be read by missionaries, as affording them a very important lesson. — Dr. Van der Kemp, before he went on his mission to Africa, learnt to make bricks, and probably instructed himself in other useful employment; and when he entered on his labours in South Africa, he colonized and civilized the Caffres, teaching them agriculture and the regular employments of social life, and thus preparing them for adopting the principles and habits which Christianity inculcates. Missionaries, in our opinion, ought never to lose sight of this line of conduct.

We are informed that *Johannes Theodorus Van der Kemp* was born in Holland, in 1748; that he first studied at Leyden, and that after having left the University, he went into the army, where 'he rose to the rank of captain of horse, and lieutenant of the Dragoon Guards.' While he was a soldier, his principles were those of an infidel, and his practice was that of a *debauché*: but, not satisfied with this course of life, he left the army, studied physic at Edinburgh, obtained the degree of M. D., and practised as a physician at Middelburgh. From this place he retired to Dort, where 'on the 27th of June 1791, while the Doctor was sailing on the river, near Dort, with his wife and daughter, a violent storm suddenly arose, and a water-spout broke on the boat, by which it was instantly overset, and, before danger was apprehended, they were all plunged into the water. Mrs. and Miss Van der Kemp were immediately drowned, and the Doctor himself, clinging to the boat, was carried down the stream nearly a mile, no one daring, in so dreadful a squall, to venture from the shore to his assistance. But a vessel then lying in the port of Dort, was, by the violence of the storm, driven from her moorings, and floated towards that part of the river in which the Doctor was just ready to perish; the sailors on board perceiving him adhering to the wreck, delivered him from his perilous situation.' — 'This awful providence seems to have given the first shock to his infidel principles, for, in the near prospect of death, and on the failure of earthly comforts, the mind is often constrained to resort to religion for support.' In fact, the Doctor became now very serious; having perused some of the Missionary Sermons, his thoughts were turned to the subject of converting the heathen: he applied to the Society to be employed in this work; and, after due examination, he was sent out on a mission to South Africa, landing at the Cape of Good Hope, March 31, 1799. Having prepared himself for his journey into the interior, he departed from the Cape on the 30th of May. Passing the valley of Rodezand, and proceeding to the farms of Mynheers Hure and Lordon, Dr. Van der Kemp and his companions crossed several times the Hex river. 'At length they entered upon a perilous road between ridges of perpendicular mountains, where there was danger of falling over the rocks. In the last house on this side the wilderness they were sheltered from a heavy rain, and the next day they advanced until night, pitching their tent amidst a thick *shower of snow*'! — 'They pursued their journey for several days through the trackless wilderness, infested with wolves, tigers, lions, and other wild beasts.

The

The footsteps of a numerous company of lions were one day visible in their road, but they were mercifully preserved.' Not being able to give farther particulars of the journey, we must hasten to observe that, in March 1802, the Doctor and his colleague Mr. Reid arrived at Algoa Bay with eighty Hottentots, where they formed a village. 'A number of huts were soon erected, and implements of agriculture being provided, immediate steps were taken to raise wheat and rice for the people. The good effects of this institution were soon apparent in the improved morals of the natives, and in their order and cleanliness.' This village grew; and the colony, having been removed to the west of the bay, was called *Bethel-Village*, or *Bethelsdorp*. Here gardens were planted, and corn was sown, as well as a church and school erected; and 'in 1808, this settlement had arrived at a very considerable degree of prosperity. "It contains," says Dr. Van der Kemp, "60 or 70 houses, each having on an average about 10 inhabitants, whose industry appears to increase."'—'In the year 1810, the number of persons belonging to the settlement at Bethelsdorp amounted nearly to *one thousand*, including men, women, and children. Industry continually increased. Mats and baskets were made in considerable quantities, and sold in the country around. The manufacture of salt was encouraged, which was bartered in the neighbourhood for wheat, and other useful articles. Soap-boiling, sawing, and wood-cutting for waggons, became also a source of support.'

Such a report clearly manifests Dr. Van der Kemp's merit as a missionary, and we trust that many will follow his example. He died December 7, 1811; and the author of this short account of his useful life concludes it with this appropriate praise:

'Few such characters as a Van der Kemp adorn the pages of ecclesiastical history. Few men of such talents, learning, and prospects have volunteered their services to the heathen; but it may be hoped that this short memoir may fall into the hands of some, who, ardently longing to be useful to the souls of men perishing for lack of knowledge, may be stirred up to follow him, and say—"Here are we, send us."'

Art. 30. *A Peep into High Life;* or fashionable Characters dramatized. By Timothy Tickler, Esq. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Hornecastle.

Timothy here endeavours to *tickle* us with a very stale joke. The practice of selecting passages from Shakspeare, and applying them to celebrated persons, has been repeated in pamphlets and news-papers *usque ad nauseam*. Now and then, however, Timothy succeeds tolerably well in his adaptations: but, take this selection "for all in all," it does not hit our fancy. The following passage in Twelfth Night, Act 2., is applied to *The House of Commons*.

"My masters, are you mad? or what are you! have you no wit, manners, nor honesty, but to gabble like tinkers at this time of night? —— is there no respect in you?"

Mr. R—d—r is designated by these few words: "The insolence of office," Hamlet, Act 3.; and Sir Vicary G. by "Robes and furr'd gowns hide all," which is a passage in King Lear, and not in Coriolanus, as here stated.

SINGLE

SINGLE SERMONS.

Art. 31. *A Sermon preached in the Tron Church, Edinburgh,* May 17th, 1811, before the Society incorporated by Royal Charter for the Benefit of the Sons of the Clergy of the Established Church of Scotland. To which is added, an Account of the Objects and Constitution of the Society. By Thomas Somerville, D.D. F.R.S.E. &c. 8vo. pp. 46. Printed at Edinburgh.

After having given a clear exposition of the text, (Heb. xii. 2.) Dr. Somerville proceeds to urge the example of Jesus as a most powerful motive to the cultivation and exercise of the benevolent affections. To that indolent sensibility which is so often mistaken for Christian charity, he prefers the vigilant and inquisitive benevolence which not only wishes to do good but is active in doing it. He justly remarks that the large families, and straitened circumstances, of an indigent yet meritorious order, produce a species of adversity which is peculiarly intitled to compassion. The livings in Scotland are generally small, and clergymen with numerous families must be much embarrassed. Dr. S. thus depicts their case: 'Their own domestic cares and anxieties, the fond, though humble hopes of parental affection thwarted, the difficulty, sometimes the impossibility, of qualifying their children to maintain their birth-right station, the gloomy prospect of soon leaving a family degraded and destitute, are sources of bitterness and sorrow, which *their own hearts only know.*'

Hitherto, the charity has been extended only to the Sons of the Clergy: but Dr. S. expresses the wish of the Society to contribute to the relief of those ministers' daughters who are in destitute circumstances, when the fund is rich enough to enable them. At present, its capital is not 8000l., to which His Majesty contributed 2000l. The number of young men receiving aid in 1810 was 36, and the sum distributed was 300l.; that is, not quite 9l. to each. A list of the members of the Society, and of the subscribers and donors, is given at the end of the Sermon.

Art. 32. *For the General Fast,* 5th February 1812. With an Appendix, by Lawrence Halloran, D.D., late Chaplain to His Majesty's Naval and Military Forces, and Rector of the Public Grammar School at the Cape of Good Hope. 4to. 2s. 6d. Jones. 1812.

It does not appear that this sermon was ever preached; and it seems to be printed for the sake of giving publicity to the author's complaints of the injustice of the British Government towards him in South Africa. The discourse is in the usual style of Fast Sermons: but in one part of it Dr. H. is not very discreet; and we should suppose that his mode of proceeding was not calculated to obtain for him any redress.

Art. 33. Preached in St. Lawrence's Church, Reading, March 17, 1812, before the Reading and Berkshire Auxiliary British and Foreign Bible Society. By the Rev. W. Marsh, M.A., Vicar of Basidon, Berks. 8vo. 2s. 6d. All Booksellers.

In forming a comparison of nations not Christian, both in the most celebrated ages of heathen antiquity and in the modern world, with those

who

who have enjoyed the benefit of the Scriptures, Mr. Marsh infers the advantages of Revelation, and pleads in favour of that truly philanthropic Society whose sole object is the universal diffusion of its celestial light. He thanks God 'that we have now lived to see, in a peculiar sense, *the age of Revelation*;' and, without entering into the narrow objections which have been urged against the Bible-Society, he strenuously contends for the universal distribution of the Scriptures. 'To *oppose* their dispersion is "to fight against God;" and to *neglect* it is to be criminally lukewarm in his cause—but to *promote* it is to work together with Him, from whom "all holy desires, all good counsels, and all just works do proceed;" it is to let our exertions be in unison with our prayers, *that his ways may be known upon earth, his saving health among all nations.*'

To this sermon is appended the Report made by the Secretary (Dr. Valpy) at the meeting held in the Town Hall, and the other proceedings of the day. A list of the subscribers is also given, by which we are happy to find that the Bible-Society is nobly supported in Berkshire.

CORRESPONDENCE.

The letter of Mr. B. having directed our attention again to the writings of Madame de Staël, we find that, in our account of that Lady's essay *on Literature*, (see our last Appendix,) we were led into a mistake when we spoke of her *Memoirs* being before the public, from her own pen. The mistake, also, arose in a great measure from the cause which Mr. B. has conjectured. We had heard of memoirs written by that Lady which were *intended* for the press on the Continent; and we had subsequently seen, in a foreign Catalogue, the name of Staal affixed to a work of this nature: but we now suspect that the former memoirs have been stifled in their birth, from the circumstance of their containing allusions to persons in the French Government; and that the production, of which the title caught our hasty glance, must have related to the witty companion of the Duchesse du Maine.

Mr. Bennet, author of *The Constancy of Israel*, mentioned in our Number for August, requests us to state that the price of that book is 7s., and that it is sold by the author, No. 475. Strand.

Our old acquaintance *Humanus*, at Glasgow College, is apprized that the directions, which his letter states to have been given, have not been fulfilled.

The author of "Democracy Unveiled" is informed that his work has for some time been in the hands of one of our associates: who will no doubt take an opportunity of attending to it.

We cannot enter into the discussion requested by H. W.: but we believe that he will find our statement to be correct.

☞ In the last Number, p. 32. l. 30. for 'phrases,' r. *phrase*.

[redacted]

THE
ONTHLY REVIEW,
For NOVEMBER, 1812.

I. *Speeches in Parliament, of the Right Honourable William ham;* to which is prefixed some Account of his Life. By mas Amyot, Esq. 3 Vols. 8vo. pp. 1300. 1l. 16s. ds. Longman and Co. 1812.

are induced to bestow early attention on this record of Ir. Windham's life and speeches, from a regard to mory rather than from any new ideas which we have r respecting his political career. Though several of our nentary speakers, with a view to the praise of liberality, ccasion at his death to indulge in the customary style of l panegyric, it happens that the public estimate with to Mr. Windham is tolerably correct. One cause of st appreciation is to be found in his resolute independ- f character: for he practised no expedient to gain favour, ppear otherwise than he really was. Though zealous to ntic degree in the cause of Spain, he did not, even at the avourite epoch of that cause, imitate Mr. Sheridan, Mr. g, and others of his political brethren, in swelling the f popular acclamation. The contemplation of this trait disposition has always been pleasing to us; — more plea- deed than the task of hearing or perusing his speeches. t all our senatorial discourses trespass on the score ixity, and leave the mind, which is in quest of a new o wander after it through a maze of circumlocutions and ions. Mr. Windham, it is well known, formed no ex- n from this remark; and the present publication, by izing in three moderate octavos his most remarkable es during a parliamentary career of twenty six years, e understood to exhibit them in a condensed form. Still farther curtailment might have taken place, without ing their substance, and without going beyond that lati- f retrenchment which custom and the essential difference n speaking and writing have sanctioned in similar collec-

Without, however, meaning to express any other favourable opinion on the form now given to these

speeches, we shall decline to dwell ôn thém, because their substance is fresh in the public memory. Mr. Windham's opinions, whether on grave or on light subjects, were too strongly marked to escape recollection; and we shall direct our readers, in preference, to the observation of his private habits and friendly correspondence.

Mr. Windham was born in 1750, two years after Mr. Fox, and nine before Mr. Pitt. He was early sent to Eton, where he was equally remarkable for quickness in scholastic attainment, and for dexterity in athletic sports. The late Dr. Barnard, at that time master of Eton, has been known to say that the flogging of Fox and Windham for stealing off to a play at Windsor was his last exercise of preceptorial discipline. At the age of sixteen, Windham passed a year at Glasgow under the tuition of Simpson, the well known editor of Euclid, who laid the foundation of his pupil's predilection for mathematics. He was next removed to Oxford, where he remained four years. Leaving it in 1771, he spent some time on the Continent; and in 1773 he gave an early specimen of his characteristic ardour, by embarking with Commodore Phipps on a voyage of discovery to the North Pole: though a continued sea-sickness made it necessary to land him in Norway. In the American war, Mr. Windham did duty as Major in a battalion of Norfolk militia, and endeared the men to him both by his display of intrepidity and his humanity in discouraging corporeal punishments, which at that time were too frequent. Unfortunately, his indifference to danger of all kinds led to an occurrence which impaired his constitution. He and two brother officers having ridden through a deep rivulet, and neglected for many hours to take off their wet clothes, one of the party fell a victim to their imprudence, while Mr. Windham was thrown into a dangerous fever. A tour in a warm climate being recommended, he passed nearly a couple of years in travelling through Swisserland and Italy.

On returning to London in 1780, he cultivated the intimacy of Johnson, Burke, and other *literati*. An idea was at one time entertained of setting him up as a candidate to represent Westminster, but it was discouraged by him on account of a difference with his intended constituents on the subject of parliamentary reform; a question to which he had thus early become inimical. Having connected himself with Mr. Fox, he entered on official labours in 1783, in the capacity of chief secretary to the Earl of Northington, Lord Lieutenant of Ireland; and it was on this occasion that, having expressed to Dr. Johnson a suspicion whether he should be able to practise all the *address* that might be necessary in his new situation, the Doctor

Doctor gave the well known reply, "Don't be afraid, Sir; you will soon make a very pretty rascal." The sequel, however, shewed that Windham's doubts of himself were well founded; and he retired from office in the course of a few months, owing, it has been said, to a want of the "requisites to become a supple courtier." In the next spring, a dissolution of parliament ensued on the defeat of the coalition-ministry; and Mr. Windham now stood for Norwich, under the disadvantage of a considerable loss of popularity on the part of his political friends. The question of parliamentary reform, also, was become a favorite in that city, and was expected to overset him: but, disdaining all indirect attempts at popularity, he made an open declaration of his hostility to the proposed reform, and is said to have gained by his candour, being successful, after a very severe struggle. His friend Mr. Coke was baffled at the county-election, sharing the fate of Lord John Cavendish, Mr. Byng, and other associates of Mr. Fox, who were in consequence humourously called "Fox's Martyrs."

The leading political question of the day was the impeachment of Mr. Hastings, in which Mr. Windham bore a part by the side of his friend Burke. He became prominent, likewise, in the debates on the regency, and in 1790 took a lead in opposing Mr. Flood's reform-bill. By this time, the French Revolution had burst forth; and Windham, though at first prepossessed in its favour, soon joined the ranks of the alarmists. As the plot thickened, his apprehensions increased, and led him to join Mr. Burke, the Duke of Portland, and the Earls Fitz-William and Spencer, in dissenting from the Opposition, and in strengthening the hands of government. This was done during the year 1793 and the session of 1794, without any participation in office; a course which Mr. W. wished his friends to continue, as being the most effectual for the public advantage. Others, however, thought differently, and went into office; on which Windham was induced by his predilection for military affairs to accept the station of Secretary of War, with a seat in the Cabinet. This event took place in July 1794; and in August he went over to the head quarters in Flanders, for the purpose, it was said, of explaining to the Duke of York the reasons of government for making a change in the command of the forces. The excursion was highly gratifying to him, as affording a view of a soldier's life while in actual service.

When in office, Mr. Windham continued to adhere to his former text of never dissembling his feelings or opinions; and we consequently obtain a much more direct key to the secret spring of cabinet-measures in his speeches than in those

of his colleagues. He made it a rule never to shrink from responsibility, which was fully shewn in the case of the unfortunate expedition to Quiberon; when, having always been of opinion that the royalist-war in France had been inadequately supported, he was induced to embrace an opportunity of sending over the emigrants, though circumstances were not sufficiently favourable. In the Cabinet, he was a resolute opponent of pacific propositions; and, being friendly to Catholic emancipation, he resigned office in February 1801. On this occasion, he appears to have believed, like the majority of the country, that the Catholic question, and not a difference with their colleagues about peace, formed the secret motive of the retirement of Messrs. Pitt and Dundas. On quitting office, Windham accepted of no pension; and he found, on occasion of Mr. Addington's peace, an opportunity of declaring, that his "voice was still for war." So popular, however, was the peace, that only twenty-two members of the House of Commons voted against it, and Windham's opposition cost him his seat for Norwich: but he was returned for the borough of St. Mawe's, the Grenvilles being unwilling to lose the support of such an anti-pacific champion.

We now reach the æra in Mr. Windham's career at which he became a regular opponent of the Addington-ministry. He was unfavourable to the plan of the army of reserve, and a loud declaimer against the volunteer-system; being averse from forming the volunteers into regular battalions, and wishing them to constitute what a certain military writer calls "a force wholly and decisively irregular." While we give credit to him for the justice of his views, as well as for his candour in declaring them, we cannot help regretting that his mode of doing this should have been so unguarded as to create, on the part of the public, a reluctance to profit by his advice. No person, however, could be more zealous in exertion as a volunteer-officer. — The time was now approaching, when Mr. Addington's ministry was destined to give way; the public not being then so familiarized with imbecile cabinets, as to deem them fit to be intrusted with the management of the war. — Mr. Windham was a ready correspondent, and frequently communicated his sentiments in letters to Mr. Amyot.

'In a letter (says Mr. A.) which I received from Mr. W. dated the 29th of March, after adverting to recent divisions in the House, and to the opinions which were entertained of a change of ministers, he added the following passage: "What the ministry may be that will come in the place of the present one, it is difficult to say. I shall clearly not be a friend to any that does not fairly try to be a comprehensive one."

'On the 11th of April, upon the third reading of the Irish Militia Bill, another trial of strength took place, in which the numbers of the

the allied oppositionists approached very near to those of the ministers; being 107 against 128.

" Pall Mall, April 19, 1804.

" The late division has, I suppose, set the politicians of Norfolk speculating, as well as the politicians here. The opinions of the learned seem to be (I am not one of the learned) that the fate of the ministry is pretty much decided; not of course by the mere effect of that division, but by the causes that led to it. Then will come the question of what is to succeed them; and to this, I am far from professing to be able to give an answer. I think I have a guess, and that guess is not favourable to any arrangement of which I am likely to make part." '

In consequence of the exclusion of Mr. Fox from office, Mr. Windham stood once more in opposition to Mr. Pitt. This situation brought on him a charge of inconsistency, which his biographer takes great pains (p. 64. et seq.) to ward off, quoting Lord Grenville's example by way of authority. On this head, we shall say little more than that two of our public men, we mean Mr. Windham and Lord Grey, have been above all suspicion of belonging to the class of calculating politicians, and stand in no need of the pleas which interested individuals are ever ready to urge for their conduct. Mr. W. bore a decided part in opposing Mr. Pitt's military measures, but was heard with greater approbation when he embraced an opportunity of advocating the cause of the Catholics. In Lord Melville's affair, he concurred in the several votes for inquiry, but did not become an active opponent of his Lordship.

In October 1805, when Bonaparte was passing through the capital of Wirtemberg, Mr. Windham took occasion, in writing to Mr. Amyot, to refer to the opinion which he had always maintained, respecting the propriety of making the restoration of the Bourbons the main object of the war:

" The present state of things, and a more formidable one cannot well be conceived, bears good testimony to the truth of all the opinions for which we have formerly contended. Had Louis the Eighteenth been lodged in one of the King's palaces, and received with all the honours due to his rank and situation, and had a system of policy corresponding with that measure been adopted by this country, the King's daughter might not have been at this time under the humiliating necessity of doing the honours of her house and table to Buonaparté."

Few of our readers, we believe, will think that Mr. Windham's course would have much tended to alter the train of events. In fact, the distinction, which those who study that gentleman's speeches or his life will generally make, is an approbation almost uniform of his intentions, and a feeling fre-

ı on this another point did not de
An army is, at this moment, the
necessary merely for the purpo
pose of peace. That is the best r
putting the country in a good stat
ceive that our ideas upon that subj
otherwise to be adopted, and that
be, would be better respecting I
satisfied to remain in our present s

The public may remember
Mr. W.'s appointment to the Se
bringing forwards any military p
number of projects which were
quarters exceeded all calculation
on the principle of rendering th
fession in a prudential view.
encouraged to serve an apprenti
and in order to remove the odiu
liberty to look forwards to certa
either quit or continue in the
during the greater part of the
enabled to retire with the same ki
in a mechanical profession woul
dering the provisions of this act,
distrust of Mr. Windham's judg
nion that these are the only pri
superiority can be fully establish
ference in the views of Mr. W.

additional expence. What, for example, can be a greater drawback on a voluntary entrance into the navy, than the habit of keeping our seamen almost perpetually cooped up on board of ship? Were corporeal punishments more sparingly administered, were the men allowed to go more frequently on shore, and were leave granted them at intervals to visit their relations, we believe that the mere retention of a balance of pay would be sufficient to ensure their regular return.

It is a circumstance not generally known that, after Mr. Fox's death, the acceptance of a peerage was pressed on Mr. Windham by his colleagues. Mr. Amyot explains the motive of this urgency no farther than by saying that it would have facilitated certain cabinet arrangements, without affecting his friend's official station. Whether this offer was meant as a salvo for declining to let Mr. W. succeed Fox in the "lead" in the House of Commons, or originated in a wish to remove him altogether from that House, certain it is that he refused it. Soon afterward, in the month of October, the dissolution of parliament occurred, which led to a severe contest for the county of Norfolk. The interest of Mr. Wodehouse was so powerful, that it required the conjunct efforts of ministry and Mr. Coke to give Windham a superiority; and, after all, his election was made void by the proof of an infraction of the Treating-act. He then sat for the borough of New Romney. — When he resumed his parliamentary functions, he had a gratification of the highest kind in moving a vote of thanks for the battle of Maida. On the subsequent dissolution of parliament in May 1807, he was returned for the borough of Higham Ferrers, in the gift of Lord Fitz-William. He disapproved most decidedly our Copenhagen expedition; and we quote with pleasure an extract from a letter to his nephew, a naval officer, who was employed on that service:

"Pall Mall, 5th September, 1807.

"Success itself will bring with it no satisfaction. I cannot feel that the accomplishment of all we look for is an equivalent, either for the risk that will have been run, or for the certain discredit that we shall have incurred, and ill-will that we shall have excited. Buonaparté's designs upon England will not turn upon his having or not the Danish fleet. Our proceedings in the case of Portugal (though such as I never ceased to regret from the moment almost of my having consented to them) were not within a thousand degrees so exceptionable as these; and they ended accordingly in a way which produced neither reproach nor ill-will."

We have to regret that Mr. Amyot has given so little explanation of the nature of Mr. Windham's literary pursuits. He adverts to them only occasionally, and in general terms, as in the following passages:

'The latter part of the autumn, and beginning of the winter of 1807, he passed in Norfolk, in quiet retirement. Being now disengaged from the bustle of office, which he often described as "a perpetual contested election," he once more sought leisure to encourage pursuits in which he had always felt more real enjoyment than he had found as a labourer in the ungrateful soil of politics. A short extract of a letter which I received from him during this recess, may serve to shew how little relish he had for those employments which public men are supposed to regard as their earthly paradise.

"Felbrigg, December 12, 1807.

"This residence at Felbrigg, though I have not, from circumstances, made it so comfortable as it ought to have been, has still increased my indisposition to public exertion; and I shrink from the prospect of returning to parliamentary duty, much more to that of office. I am at times inclined to wish that I had accepted an offer, which you know was pressed upon me, and by means of which I might have better indulged the inclination I now feel for retirement, without wholly losing my hold on public life *.

"As to the lead of a party in the House of Commons, it is a situation which I have no reason to think would ever be offered to me, but which infallibly I would never accept. I took an early opportunity of preventing any difficulty upon that subject, by putting myself out of the question."

"Felbrigg, January 6, 1808.

"The time for returning to town comes now dreadfully near, and finds me, as I am sorry to say is too apt to be the case, very much unprepared for it. "Unhouselled, unannointed, &c." I have been sinking fast in idleness, and have been worse, in fact, from not having been quite well."

'The idleness, however, of which he here complains, is only to be understood as an absence from political employment.'

The year 1808 was the commencement of the Spanish resistance to Bonaparte's tyranny; and from the first notice of this insurrection to the latest period of his life, Mr. Windham was zealous in the cause. He not only took a lively interest in the proceedings of the patriots, but proposed to be a personal witness of them, and with that view had actually made some progress in the study of the Spanish language. A rheumatic complaint, however, rendered it expedient for him to seek relief from the Bath-waters. He was of opinion that the force sent to Spain should be large, and employed preferably in armaments along the coast. Catalonia and Biscay were his favourite points, by way of "stopping up," to use his own expression, "the neck of the bottle." This idea is introduced in the following letters:

'* The offer of a peerage.'

To

To Mr. Amyot.

" Bath, 2d January, 1809.

" I have lately received some very interesting accounts, both from Spain and from those who have been there; and the result of them is to teach me great distrust of what we may hear unfavourable to the Spaniards. We are a sad people either to judge of, or to communicate with foreigners; and unless our army can strike some great stroke, which they will hardly do without some great risk, their presence will have done more harm than good.

" The part in which the greatest error seems chargeable upon our counsels is the eastern coast of Spain. I have seen officers who were with our squadron in that quarter, and witnessed the conduct of the Spaniards at Gerona. Nothing could exceed the ardour which was shewn by the people, nor the means of resistance which the country afforded. It never can have been right, that no assistance was furnished on that side from Sicily, which it might have been worth while even to abandon, for the sake of what might have been done by that army in Catalonia."

To his Nephew, Mr. R. Lukin.

" Dear Robert, " Bath, 22d January, 1809.

" I thank you for your letter and for your enquiries. I am capable enough of going to London, and to the House, or any where else, but I am unwilling to carry away with me a complaint, when I am on the only spot where an easy cure may be hoped for. I begin, however, to be a little impatient. The *Clangor Tubarum* in the House of Commons, as heard through the reports of the news-papers, makes me rather restless and agitated, and uneasy at not being in the battle. I am not prepared to go the length of saying that there has been no case in which troops in the interior might be employed with advantage, though I have always seen great inconvenience likely to attend the measure, and have inclined rather to the course of keeping up a continual alarm upon the coast, and assisting the efforts of the inhabitants by occasional and desultory descents."

To Mr. Amyot.

" Bath, January 26, 1809.

" General Hope's letter is felt, I conclude, by every body to be a very excellent one. I had before been satisfied by the account of officers who had been at Corunna at the time, that the victory was one which Buonaparté could not conceal, and would establish a new proof of the superiority of our troops in any contest in which their qualities could be fairly tried. This is a great consolation in the midst of all that we have to lament, both in the result of our operations, and in the way of individual loss."—" Great glory has, at least, been acquired by us, which Buonaparté will not be able altogether to conceal, and which seems to have left upon the army a delightful impression of their own superiority."

Under these convictions, it was not to be expected that Mr. Windham would approve of sending, in 1809, so large a force on the Walcheren expedition. His opinion is thus expressed:

To

To his Nephew, Captain Lukin.

" DEAR WILLIAM, " *Beaconsfield, July* 23, 1809.

" I hold to my purpose of going to the assizes, and shall accordingly set off for town to morrow.

" Terrible news this from Germany!—though the learned in London, I understand, (at least those about the offices) do not consider the battle as one of those decisive ones that leave nothing afterwards to be hoped. There is nothing to me in the event that at all comes unexpectedly, however it may be to be lamented. The most discouraging consideration is the dreadful inferiority of talent that appears always to be on the side of the Austrians. Why is Buonaparté to be able to pass the Danube, before the Archduke is apprized of what he is about? I cannot think that this would have happened the other way.

" Our expedition I conceive to be a most injudicious one, whatever be the event of it. My opinion is, that the whole should have been sent to Spain; so as not to leave Buonaparté, when he has settled the Austrian business, to begin, as he did last year, on the banks of the Ebro; but to have driven the whole of the French force out of the Peninsula. With a view even to a respite from invasion, the total clearance from Spain would have been of more importance than the destruction of all the vessels and arsenals in the Scheldt, should we even accomplish that purpose.'

On the Battle of Talavera.

" Felbrigg, August 17, 1809.

" You have rejoiced no doubt in the new proof, contained in the last Gazette, that the supposed superiority of the French arms, so arrogantly assumed and so meanly acquiesced in for some years past, vanishes before British troops. Though the late victory should produce nothing more (as I fear it will not) than a confirmation of this proof, I don't know that it is too dearly purchased. Had our expedition gone to Spain, are there not grounds for believing that we might have driven the French out of the Peninsula?"

On the reported Change of Ministry.

" Felbrigg, September 16, 1809.

" I have received from several quarters information of the probability of a change in the ministry, which is far from presenting to me a prospect that I can contemplate with any feelings of pleasure. I have not virtue enough to wish the ministers out at the risk of being one of those who may be called upon to succeed them. While the change was said to be only partial, I felt sufficiently at my ease; but in the way in which my informants suppose it is to take place, an offer to me, of some sort or another, I take it for granted, must be made. It is one of the things that one neither knows how to accept or decline. If I could always be as well as I am here, —if Downing Street were in Felbrigg Park, or a dozen miles from London, — I should think much less about it; but the being called upon to read and to write, to consider and to decide, when one is exhausted and worn down with one's duty in parliament, has something in it that hardly any advantages or gratifications can repay; and I am afraid my inability

in point of health or strength are not got the better of, even in the two years that have elapsed since I was last in office."—

"Felbrigg, October 2, 1809.

"I have had letters, with copies of the correspondence, both from Lord Grey and Lord Grenville. I should think that the ministers will contrive to go on, and I cannot but hope it; for, in the other event, I am sure I don't know what is to be done. I was enumerating, in my answer to Lord Grey, all that I thought could be looked to in that case, and the amount was very limited, and frightfully difficult. * * *

"I feel but little stomach to return to office, unless I can have *carte blanche* as to my military plans; and even then the whole is so *be-devilled*, that there is no restoring things to their original state."

In the debates on the affair of the Duke of York, Mr. Windham acquitted the Duke of any participation or connivance in disgraceful transactions: but, thinking it was adviseable that H. R. H. should withdraw from office, he voted not for Mr. Perceval's but for Mr. Bankes's motion. In the next session, on the inquiry into the Scheldt expedition, Mr. Yorke moved the exclusion of strangers from the gallery. The motion having met with opposition, Mr. Windham supported it, and, in one of his imprudent effusions, allowed himself to fall into a vehement accusation of the characters of the newspaper reporters. These gentlemen, in return, combined to exclude his speeches from the papers, and had only begun to forgive him, when his public exhibitions were unfortunately brought to a close. The accident, which more immediately caused Mr. Windham's last illness, happened in the preceding year:

'About midnight on the 8th of July 1809, in walking home from an evening party, Mr. Windham observed a house in Conduit-Street to be on fire. He hastened to the spot, to render his assistance, and found that the house in flames was so near to that of his friend, the Honourable Frederick North, as to threaten its destruction. Knowing that Mr. North (who was then on a voyage in the Mediterranean) possessed a most valuable library, Mr. Windham determined, with the assistance of some persons belonging to a volunteer corps, whom he selected from the crowd, to make an effort for the preservation of it. After four hours' labour, four-fifths of the books were saved. He did not quit the house till the flames, which finally consumed it, had spread so extensively as to render his further exertions highly dangerous. During the time that he was employed in this arduous undertaking, it happened most unfortunately, that, by a fall, he received a blow on the hip, but not of so painful a nature as to occasion any relaxation of his efforts. The next day the author of this narrative called on him, and found him complaining, not of the hurt he had received, but of a cold which was the consequence of his exposure to the weather, the night having been very rainy. He seemed to enjoy the whimsical association in the newspapers of "Mr. Windham and the Volunteers," but lamented that two of the persons who

who had assisted him had received considerable injury. To those unfortunate persons (one of whom afterwards died) he shewed the most kind and unremitting attentions. His cold continued to be very troublesome to him for some time, but from the blow on his hip, he, for many months, appeared to suffer no inconvenience whatever, though it occasioned a tumour which, in the following Spring, had increased to a considerable size.

'In May 1810, Mr. Windham found it necessary to give his serious attention to the tumour which had been thus collected. Mr. Cline (whom he had consulted upon it two months before) gave it as his opinion that, in order to prevent dangerous consequences, an immediate operation was necessary; — and his advice was confirmed by that of four out of six eminent surgeons whom Mr. Windham separately consulted. In fact, seven out of nine professional men recommended the operation. It is not at all surprizing, therefore, that Mr. Windham, whose courage was on all occasions remarkable, should have determined on submitting at once to the dangers of the knife, rather than linger on in doubt and apprehension.

'He communicated his intention to very few persons, besides the professional men whom he had consulted; and the deepest anxiety with which he seemed to be impressed was that of sparing Mrs. Windham the terrors which a knowledge of the event could not fail to excite in a mind of extraordinary sensibility and tenderness. He conveyed her to Beaconsfield, on a visit to her friend Mrs. Burke, with whom he left her, on a plea of business, and arrived in town on Friday the 11th of May. On the following Sunday, he attended at the Charter-house, and received the sacrament, which was administered to him privately by the Reverend Dr. Fisher, the master of that institution, with whom he had been intimately acquainted from his youth. The remaining days before the operation was to take place he employed in arranging papers, in making a codicil to his will, and in writing many letters, some of which were addressed to his nearest relatives, to be opened in case the event should prove fatal to him.'—

'On Thursday, the 17th of May 1810, the operation was performed by Mr. Lynn. The tumour was skilfully extracted, but having been very deeply seated and attached to the ligaments of the hip joint, the operation was necessarily painful. Mr. Windham, however, bore the pain with the greatest resolution; and during a pause occasioned by a consultation upon the necessity of making a further incision, he even joked with his perilous situation. The tumour proved to be schirrous, of the shape of a turkey's egg, but even larger. Mrs. Windham, according to an arrangement which he had previously made, returned to town the next morning, and was informed of what had taken place. For a few days appearances were not unfavourable, though the wound did not heal with what is called the *first intention*, and though Mr. Windham suffered greatly from restlessness and an irritable state of the nerves. But the hopes even of his most sanguine friends soon began to give way. A symptomatic fever came on, and upon the ninth day he was pronounced to be in great danger. On the following day the symptoms were judged to be less unfavourable;

but

but others of an alarming kind soon succeeded, and the medical attendants (to whom were now added Dr. Baillie and Sir Henry Halford) no longer entertained hopes of his recovery. From this time, the fever abated, the pulse became firmer and better, and the patient even began to take and enjoy nourishment; yet in spite of these otherwise flattering circumstances, the state of the wound, which had never suppurated, and the total inability of nature to make any effort towards relieving it, were symptoms that excited no feelings but those of despair. Mr. Windham himself considered his case to be hopeless very soon after the performance of the operation, and when, at a later period, the attending surgeon, availing himself of some favourable circumstances, endeavoured to impress him with a less gloomy opinion, he said, "Mr. Lynn, you fight the battle well, but all won't do." He perfectly well knew the feebleness of his own constitution. Though he had possessed great muscular strength, and had lived a life of temperance and activity, he had never overcome the internal debility, left by the fever which had attacked him at the age of twenty-eight.'—

'On the 26th of May, notwithstanding his debility, Mr. Windham was able to maintain a long conference with his nephew, Mr. Robert Lukin, during which he expressed himself on many topics with his usual felicity and spirit. Upon this occasion he pointed out to Mr. Lukin his mathematical manuscripts, explained generally the nature and object of them, and expressed his wish that they might be carefully examined, with a view to ascertain whether some parts of them might not be found worth preserving.

'On Sunday, the 3d of June, his dissolution appeared to be fast approaching. It was on the evening of that day that the physicians and surgeons assembled in his chamber for the last time. Soon after they had left it, I had an afflicting opportunity of witnessing his dying condition, in which, however, none of the terrors and few even of the milder signs of death were visible. Though his articulation was a little imperfect, his voice was not deficient in strength; and though his countenance was slightly altered, it retained much of its peculiar animation. He was evidently free from pain, and cheered by feelings of tranquil resignation. During about twenty minutes, he spoke many times, not without vivacity, and when I was about to leave the chamber, he pressed my hand with a degree of firmness which seemed at variance with the intimation which he too plainly meant to convey to me — that I should see him no more. It was about half past ten o'clock when I left him, and after that time he is represented as having spoken but little. Being placed by Mr. Lynn in a favourable situation for sleep, he said, "I thank you, this is the last trouble I shall give you." He then fell into a doze, or stupor, and expired without pain or emotion the next morning (Monday, June the 4th), at about twenty-five minutes past eleven.'—

'He had just completed the sixtieth year of his age.—In his person he was tall and well proportioned. Having in his youth been eminently skilful in manly exercises, he had thence acquired in his deportment a happy union of strength and ease, of agility and gracefulness, which never forsook him. The form of his features was singularly interesting; and the penetrating vivacity of his eye gave a faithful indication of the corresponding qualities of his mind.'

Mr. Windham

Mr. Windham became a married man in 1798, and lived very happily, but he had no children. In the character drawn of him by Mr. Amyot, the reader traces the partiality of a friend, but the chief lineaments of the portrait are faithful. He says with truth that Mr. Windham's manner had nothing artificial in it, since a want of affectation was one of his prominent characteristics, and his style was remarkably plain. With regard to his oratory, neither the perusal of the present publication of his speeches, nor Mr. Amyot's encomiums, (pp. 106, 107. 139.) can lead us to view it with more than qualified approbation. His information was chiefly valuable on military topics: but the length to which he expanded his illustrations, on these and other subjects, exceeded the customary latitude of parliament, large as it is. In taking up his speech of April 1806, on our military system, the reader will be struck with its diffuseness, though this is perhaps the most condensed of his orations. Judging from this circumstance, as well as from our personal observation, we can hardly agree with his biographer, (p. 107.) that Mr. W. had 'eminently the ear of the house;' nor can we receive as sincere Mr. Canning's declaration after his death, that his "eloquence was most insinuating." Mr. Windham's knowlege was of great variety and extent, but by no means arranged or digested; and to elegance of composition he seemed to make few pretensions. His homely allusions were not always forcible, and they were certainly of too frequent recurrence. An acknowlegement of these irregularities is made by Mr. Amyot, in the midst of his encomiums:

'His reading latterly was miscellaneous and desultory; but what he hastily acquired, he accurately retained, and aptly applied in illustration of his opinions and arguments.'—'His habits of business were by no means regular, yet he could never justly be said to be idle. He would have been able to transact more business had he been less scrupulous. It was his custom to begin a transaction with more care and nicety than could afterwards be found practicable in the conclusion of it.'

His excentric reasonings are most familiar to the public by his strange panegyrics on boxing and bull-baiting: but many passages of his speeches were calculated to excite similar reflections on the part of a thoughtful hearer. Some years ago, in a debate on the subject of education, the example of Scotland being quoted, Mr. W. maintained that the habits of that portion of our fellow-subjects arose less from moral causes than from their being physically a "different breed." Can we suppose an assertion more indicative of incorrect observation of the progress of society in general, or of the particular people of whom he was speaking? His blind antipathy to peace discovered an extraordinary unacquaintance with the rapid increa-

of our resources when in a state of tranquillity; and peace, moreover, would have been the most favourable season for the adoption of his military improvements. With regard to trade, he seems (p. 42.) to have been one of those who imagine that the prosperity of one country operates to reduce the prosperity of another; and his impolicy in advising an inflexible adherence to the hopeless cause of the Bourbons, and his rooted hostility to parliamentary reform, are farther illustrations of a wayward mind. In contrasting these errors of judgment with his goodness of heart, we cannot help ascribing them, in some measure, to the loss, at an early age, of the superintending care of a parent. The points on which, in our view of the matter, his admirers ought to rest their claim of reputation for him, are two—variety of information, and irreproachable integrity. Of no man could it be more truly said, that private enmity was unmixed with his public differences:

'He generally spoke of his adversaries with liberality, and often with kindness. There was no system of opinions which he so strongly condemned as he did Sir Francis Burdett's; yet I remember that he once softened the asperity of some remarks which were made by another person on that Baronet's conduct; adding, good humouredly, "I suspect, after all, I have a *sneaking kindness* for Sir Francis."

Among other judicious remarks by Mr. Amyot, is his reference of Mr. Windham's habits and opinions to a strong military spirit. 'This,' he says, (p. 135.) 'is the clue which once found unravels all the rest.' Of his several characteristics, conspicuous as they were, the most remarkable was intrepidity. In his line of life, this disposition becomes evinced chiefly by the maintenance of independence towards political friends, or by the still bolder task of combating popular errors; and in both these respects, Mr. Windham was distinguished. His courage was displayed also in a more humble way, that dexterity in bodily exercise which he shewed when a boy remaining with him through life; and the following anecdote, with which we conclude our extracts, gives a curious illustration of his habits in this respect:

'The custom of chairing a member at the Norfolk and Norwich elections is not confined merely to *carrying* him in a chair, as at most other places, but he has the additional pleasure (if he thinks it so) of being *tossed up*, as it is there called;—that is, upon a halt made at every thirty or forty yards of his progress, he is thrown up in his chair (which is supported by poles) completely out of the hands of his chairmen, and caught again, three times successively at each halting. This is a custom which a timid or unpractised person generally thinks "more honoured in the breach than the observance," but Mr. Windham was remarkable for going through this ceremony with such perfect ease and agility, that the exhibition was rendered really graceful

ful and elegant. He was of course the *favourite* of the chairmen who were not a little proud of the opportunities he afforded them c exhibiting their skill.'

In his prefatory advertisement, Mr. Amyot speaks with mo desty of his biographical sketch; which, he says, is intende 'merely to serve as an introduction to the speeches,—to excit curiosity, not to gratify it:' adding, however, that this gra tification may hereafter be expected from the pen of Mr. Georg Ellis.

ART. II. *The Gleaner:* a Series of Periodical Essays; selected an arranged from scarce or neglected Volumes, with an Introductio and Notes. By Nathan Drake, M. D. Author of "Literar Hours," and of "Essays on Periodical Literature." 8vo 4 Vols. 2l. 2s. Boards. Suttaby and Co. &c. 1811.

To our readers, and to the literary public in general, the nam of Dr. Drake is far from being unknown; and, from ou examination of his labours on former occasions, but particu larly of his "Essays on Periodical Literature," to which th present volumes are a sequel, (see our Review for Decembe 1811,) it will be supposed that our task on the present occa sion has been of a very agreeable nature. Indeed, no period i the annals of the literary society of this country is more in teresting than the age of the *Tatler* and the *Spectator;* nor is an species of composition better calculated to improve the tast and morals of the public, than that at the head of which, i point of time and of merit, those works are intitled to be placed It was, however, to be expected that books of that description the composition of which might to a cursory observer seem t require no more exertion than common conversation, and whic was so tempting at once by its novelty, its popularity, and it facility, would not want very numerous imitators; and, amon all those imitators, it was fair to conceive that some woul possess considerable merit. When this circumstance is con sidered, we do not think that the number of periodical publica tions which appeared in the first half of the last century, an for an account of which we must again refer to the article i our Review for December 1811, will appear very surprising As, however, the causes to which we may attribute that profusio were such as would of necessity grow weaker, it seems to be i the natural course of things that the number should have de clined in the last half of the same period: till now, after th lapse of only one decade of the present century, the species of com position which, fifty years ago, flourished with such luxuriance should be almost extinct, or exist only, after numerous graftings

in a state of admixture with species bearing very little original affinity to it. At the present epoch, the only remains of this sort of literature are to be found in the periodical works of criticism, or in the daily emporia of news and politics.

Many causes have concurred to produce this effect. The *Spectator* could be laid on the breakfast table for the most trifling expence; it was sustained by the wit and talents of some of the brightest ornaments of the literary annals of the country; and, above all, it had the charm of novelty and the recommendation of fashion. The *Tatler* had admitted some mixture of politics with its moral, critical, and disquisitive essays. In time, this department of politics (always most strongly interesting to a British public) outgrew and altogether overshadowed the rest, and, on the one side, brought on the decay of the original system which, on the other, was completed by the growing taste for criticism. In our age, printing and paper are expensive; wit and talents are perhaps somewhat scarcer than in former days, (though we think that the actual scarcity is far less than the apparent, much of which is attributable to accidental causes;) and the taste for morality and simple disquisition is almost entirely obsolete. Few people peruse the *Spectator* now, although, as a sort of national classic, it has a place in most libraries; and scarcely any one would think with satisfaction of reading an essay in it every day, with his dish of tea, instead of the morning newspaper. If this fate, then, has befallen that work, how could it be expected that any person should be acquainted with by far the greater part of the crowd of inferior papers which have been published on the same plan? To possess them would be to have a library very extensively, but very uselessly, furnished: but to possess a selection from them, consisting of those essays which deserved the most attention, could not but be desirable. Condensation, which is the immediate effect of selection, never fails to heighten merit in the productions of literature, as it increases flavour or fragrance in those of the natural world. Diffusion is one of the evils which have been consequent on the introduction of the art of printing; and it is owing to that cause, perhaps, more than to any other, that modern literature has been so generally decried as inferior to the antient. To the eye of a philosopher, the genius and talents of mankind (comprising all the vigour and exertion of the human intellect,) are, with some necessary allowances for variations of climate, and different forms of government and civil society, the same in all ages and in all parts of the globe. Climates, also, remain the same through all ages, and the influence arising from them cannot, therefore, have been materially lessened or increased. Forms of civil polity have

varied, and will vary: but in this particular, as in very many others, length of experience would lead us to expect improvement rather than degeneracy. When the means of diffusing and preserving the monuments of genius or science were few and laborious or expensive,—when transcription was the work of time and labour,—it could not but be expected that this expence and pains would be bestowed with effect, and through a series of time, on those works only which were deserving of perpetuity. It is thus that necessity has performed the task of selection and condensation among the antients, which, in modern literature, must be executed by taste and exertion; and until this office be discharged, the comparison between the two subjects resembles that between a high-flavoured spirit in its pure state, and the same spirit with its pungency and power of excitement infinitely diminished by dilution. In an inferior degree, this comparison may be applied to the subject of periodical literature; and, with this opinion on the advantages of selection, we should have felt obliged to any one who had made that effort, though he had displayed less of taste and discrimination than Dr. Drake has manifested in the volumes before us. The task, however, was not without difficulty, more particularly as it was necessary to bring the selection within a very limited compass. Of the method pursued by Dr. D., we shall present our readers with his own account:

'Of the four volumes composing the Gleaner, the first and second are constructed of papers which were published from the year 1713 to the close of the Idler in 1760; and the third and fourth, of those which have appeared between the last period and the year 1797, when the Looker-On had received from its author a last revision and a more enlarged form.

'Though from the year 1709 to the termination of the year 1760, one hundred and twenty-two periodical papers have been published, independent of eight, which are now honoured with the appellation of classical, I have been under the necessity of limiting my attention, while forming the first two volumes, to only nineteen of the number. This is to be attributed, in some degree, to the political aspect of several of these works; politics for reasons too obvious to be dwelt upon being excluded from my design; but more especially is it attributable to the imbecility which pervades so large a portion of these hasty, and, too frequently, inelegant productions. Even from the volumes to which I have had recourse for this part of the selection, and which extend to thirty-five, it will excite no surprise that I have been able to construct but two; when it is known that the sole object of the undertaking is, the juxtaposition of what either amounts to excellence, or, at least, rises above the limit of mediocrity. Of the papers which have been laid under contribution for the first and second volumes of the Gleaner, the following is a list: namely, the Englishman, 1713; the Lay Monastery, 1713; the Censor, 1715; the

the Freethinker, 1718; the Plain Dealer, 1724; the Universal Spectator, 1728; Memoirs of the Society of Grub-street, 1730; Fog's Journal, 1732; Common Sense, 1737; the Champion, 1739; the Female Spectator, 1744; the Parrot, 1746; the Student, 1750; the Inspector, 1751; the Covent-Garden Journal, 1752; the Grays-Inn-Journal, 1752; the Old Maid, 1755; the Prater, 1756; and the Visitor, 1760.

'To the task of selection, it became necessary, for the interest of the work, to add that of arrangement; for, had the papers followed each other merely in the order of time, a want of pleasing and perspicuous distribution, with regard to the nature of the subjects chosen, would have been inevitably felt. I have, therefore, intermingled the grave and the gay, the didactic and the narrative, in such a manner, as, I flatter myself, will sufficiently arrest and relieve the attention of the reader, and, at the same time, harmonize with the best models of periodical composition.

'That the Gleaner might possess all the advantages which are now annexed to the best editions of our Classical Essayists, I have given translations of all the mottoes, and added tables of contents and indices. For the sake of uniformity, also, I have prefixed mottoes to those papers which originally did not exhibit such an ornament; and I have, likewise, occasionally substituted a new motto, where the old one appeared to me not sufficiently pleasing or apposite.'

The third volume contains selections from twelve different papers, commencing with *The Genius*, in 1761, ending with *The Loiterer*, in 1789, and comprehending (among others) the *Microcosm* and the *Olla Podrida*. — Volume iv. comprizes only ten papers, beginning with *The Speculator*, in 1790, and ending with *The Philanthrope*, in 1797. This distribution, we think, is sufficiently fair and impartial; presuming that a proper allowance has been made for differences in the extent of the works from which the selections have been made. The papers in the first volume display by far the best specimens of humour and disquisition in the original periodical style, especially some from *The Freethinker*, *The Universal Spectator*, and *Common Sense*. At No. 10. of this volume we have some very just and spirited remarks from *The Plain Dealer*, on the criminal law of our country; the state of which still requires so much amendment, notwithstanding all the argument and all the satire that have been exerted on the subject. Of the latter description, the following speech, related to have been delivered at the gallows by a man who was about to suffer for murder and robbery, is a very fair example:

"Good people (said the criminal), since I am to serve you for a sight, the least you can do is to be civil to the man that entertains you. I ask nothing of you but the justice that is due to me. There are some meddling tongues, which I can hear among the crowd, very

busy to incense you. Though it is true I have committed murder, yet I hope I am no murderer. The felony I really purposed, but my intention had no part in the death that I was guilty of. The deceased cryed for help, and was so obstinate and clamorous, that I was under the necessity to kill him or submit myself to be taken. And thus I argued in my mind: if I murder him, I shall get off; or, at worst, if I am taken, my punishment will be no greater, than if I spare him, and surrender: I can be but hanged for murder, and must be hanged too for the house-breaking. This thought, good people, prevailed with me to shoot him; so that what you call murder, was but self-preservation. Now, that I should have died in this same manner, whether I had shot him or no, witness these two weak brothers here, who look as if they were already at the other end of their voyage, though they have not hoisted sail yet: one of these stole some bacon, and the other, a wet smock or two. The law must be certainly wiser than you are; and since that has been pleased to set our crimes on a level, be so civil, or compassionate, as to hold your silly tongues, and let me die without slander."

It is not a little surprising that, during so long a period of complaint, so little improvement should have been made in this highly important branch of legislation. Most sincerely do we hope that the present age will not pass away without the endeavours of that enlightened person, to whose hands this task is at present intrusted with so just a confidence, being crowned with the success which they deserve. The paper to which we allude is followed by some quotations from Sir Samuel Romilly's pamphlet, which cannot be too often or too attentively read. We may also refer to Mr. Basil Montague's collection of the opinions of different writers of eminence. This is unfortunately a subject on which authority and general opinion are calculated to have more influence than naked reasoning, however just; and we therefore feel it to be particularly our duty to recommend this work, which brings into a small compass all the authority that can be obtained on this point, and instructs us out of the mouths of the most able and experienced men of our own and other countries, through a long series of time.

In No. 12. of the collection before us, the attachment of the Romans to agricultural pursuits is discussed, and the writer is led to the subject of the origin of surnames, concluding his paper as follows:

'This account of the Romans is not peculiar to them; but may be applied as justly to most nations, if we look back into their ancient manners and customs. There was a time, when tillage, pasturage, breeding of cattle, and planting, were not ignoble occupations in this island: neither is it yet half a century, since most of our country-gentlemen have been bred in a complete ignorance of husbandry, to learn the idleness of the town. We can likewise, even to this day, shew perhaps a more ample catalogue of rural surnames, than the Romans

Romans could ever boast of: several of which are taken from animals; as Lamb, Kid, Colt, Bullock, Gosling, Cock, Dove, Partridge, Pheasant: others from country-occupations; as Shepherd, Cowherd, Farmer, Plowman, Gardener: many from grain, trees, plants, and flowers; as Wheat, Oats, Ash, Birch, Broom, Ivy, Violet, Lilly, Primrose: some from fruits; as Cherry, Strawberry, Nut, Haws, Sweetapple, Crab: others from the water; as Lake, Pool, Ford, Rivers, Brooks: and several from the nature or distribution of the ground; as Hill, Dale, Heath, Wood, Greenwood, Lane, Hedges, Acres, Meadows.

'Thus did our ancient families distinguish themselves by appellations which betokened industry, innocence, and independency; and which bore some relation to either their lands, their seats, or their business. If most of the flourishing modern families, who haunt the town, were to copy after our predecessors in this respect; many, who might be ambitious of being dignified by their places of abode, would have a right to assume the surnames of White's, Tom's, Will's, Button's, the Grecian, Jonathan's, Change-alley, Groom-Porter's, &c. Others, who might be more desirous to be known by the particular arts of life they cultivated, or might be proud of signifying to posterity by what industry they happened to thrive in the world, would not be thought to arrogate by appropriating to themselves the genteel names of Hazard, Piquet, Ombre, Basset, Punter, Masker; Gamester, likewise, and Sharper, are no disreputable nor improper titles, with a handsome equipage; and, if any gentleman of the industrious tribe should have a particular fondness to a rural denomination, he may borrow, from a country-animal, the surname of Setter.' Free-Thinker, No. 120. May 15, 1719.'

We are induced to notice No. 32. not only for the intrinsic humour which it possesses, but also for its whimsical application to a circumstance of modern occurrence. It is taken from *The Universal Spectator*, and purports to be a letter from the Trunk-maker who is celebrated with so much humour by Addison in *The Spectator*, lamenting the state of degeneracy into which the stage had fallen since he commenced his peculiar labours of criticism. He describes his feelings when, after a dinner with some old friends, he produced his stock of cudgels, worn out in the employment of directing the public taste at the theatres,—the precious relics, as he styles them, of his upper-gallery dictatorship; a whole bundle destroyed on *Cato*, one shattered quite to the head on Booth in *The Distressed Mother*, two devoted to *Mariamne*, and four to the first appearance of *The Provoked Husband*. Regretting those days in which, with real disinterestedness, he was pleased with his office in proportion to the expence which he incurred in serving it, he is about to enlarge on the advantage which, in the words of *The Spectator*, an audience derives from having "a person preside over their heads, like the director of a concert, in order to awaken their

attention and beat time to their applause," when he is interrupted by one of the young wits of the town, and the following dialogue takes place:

"Why, look you, as to that, Old True-penny, you may save yourself the labour: that office, now, like many others, is wholly superfluous: and should you presume to lay about you as formerly with your impertinent cudgel, 'tis ten to one but you would be tossed over. I'd have you to know we have no need of any such prompter above stairs, to rap out a cue for us to thunder below; we are all become staunch critics, every man of us, look you; and by a much easier receipt than ever was known to our fathers: for whereas they dared not open their mouths without Aristotle, Horace, or, at least, some modern Frenchman, for a second; a broad hat, a little wig, a close frock, and a good oaken plant, make the least of us more terrible to the stage than Dennis himself. Again, one Trunk-maker, forsooth, ruled the roast in those times; whereas, now-a-days, you would think the whole worshipful company was at work all round the house, pit, box, and gallery! Yes, we scorn to sneak into corners, or clamour only with the mob, but boldly press forward into the most distinguished places, and mingle with those of the best rank in the kingdom. I myself have led a party into the pit, that has had the honour to clear the whole stage before them, and all the boxes behind them. Then, as to the demolishment of cudgels, I made a purchase of half a hundred this very season; and though they proved to be as good stuff as ever was handled, this is the last of them. In plain truth, we have raised the price of this sort of ware above five-and-twenty per cent., and I do not question, but, before the end of May, it will be hard to get a cudgel of any substance for love or money. But why do I talk of cudgels only? benches, sconces, every thing that we can lay our hands on, go to wreck, without fear of wit, when we have a mind to shew our plenitude of power. And let me see the manager who dares to say to the meanest of us, what dost thou?" — Here, Sir, though not a little nettled all the while at his arrogant manner, I ventured to interpose: — "But pray, young man, to answer what end is all this violence? Is it to banish folly, absurdity, self-conceit, indecorum, barbarism, or dulness, from the stage? Is it in behalf of any injured genius? Is it to revive departed wit? Is it to provoke ingenuous emulation? Is it to restore the lost importance, dignity, and majesty of the English theatre?" — "Pshaw! (replies my spark) I don't know what you talk of: 'tis to restore King Harlequin."

We do not presume to say that our modern reformers of the stage had not at least a better object in view than the restoration of King Harlequin; indeed their object seems to have been decidedly republican: but the passage serves to shew that the claim, on the part of the public, to superintendance in these matters, was made and carried on much in the same manner by our ancestors as by ourselves; and therefore it takes the merit of originality at least from them who conceived the noble project of

of bringing the manager to their own terms, by stripping his benches and breaking his chandeliers.

We shall notice only one more paper in this volume, the humour of which we prefer to any other in the whole collection. It is selected from *Common Sense*, (anno 1737,) and the subject is *Dress*. The parallel between ornaments of the person and ornaments of literary style is managed with great skill.

'To those of the first rank in birth and beauty, I recommend a noble simplicity of dress; the subject supports itself, and wants none of the borrowed helps of external ornaments. Beautiful nature may be disfigured but cannot be improved by art; and as I look upon a very handsome woman to be the finest subject in nature, her dress ought to be Epic, (but the true Virgilian Epic,) modest, noble, and entirely free from the modern tinsel. I therefore prohibit all *concetti*, and luxuriances of fancy, which only depreciate so noble a subject; and I must do the handsomest women I know the justice to say, that they keep the clearest from these extravagances. Delia's good sense appears even in her dress, which she neither studies nor neglects; but by a decent and modest conformity to the fashion, equally shuns the triumphant pageantry of an overbearing beauty, or the insolent negligence of a conscious one.

'As for those of an inferior rank of beauty, such as are only pretty women, and whose charms result rather from a certain air and "je ne scai quoi" in their whole composition, than from any dignity of figure, or symmetry of features; I allow them greater licences in their ornaments, because the subject, not being of the sublimest kind, may receive some advantages from the elegancy of style, and the variety of images. I therefore permit them to dress up to all the flights and fancies of the Sonnet, the Madrigal, and such like minor compositions. Flavia may serve for a model of this kind: her ornaments are her amusements, not her care: though she shines in all the gay and glittering images of dress, the prettiness of the subject warrants all the wantonness of the fancy; and if she owes them a lustre which (it may be) she would not have without them, she returns them graces they could find no where else.

'There is a third sort, who, with a perfect neutrality of face, are neither handsome nor ugly; and who have nothing to recommend them, but a certain smart and genteel turn of little figure, quick and lively. These I cannot indulge in a higher style than the Epigram, which should be neat, clever, and unadorned; the whole to lie in the sting—and where that lies is unnecessary to mention.'

From this volume it would be easy to swell the list of quotations, but we are consious that we have already exceeded our limits. Such of our readers as have a taste for the pathetic will be interested by the story of a shipwreck in No. 30., and the anecdotes of Jeffery Rudel, the celebrated companion of Richard Cœur de Lion, in No. 47.; while those who delight in the style of parable will find entertainment and instruction in the tale

of Florio, and the allegory of Psychostatic in enlargement of the idea of Cebes.

Of the papers in the second volume, we think that those from *The Inspector*, which contain accounts of microscopic observations by Sir John Hill, are the most worthy of attention. They are written on subjects which possess much interest and curiosity, with the utmost perspicuity and elegance of style; and the moral and religious considerations, to which the contemplation of some of the most wonderful parts of creation give birth, are enforced in a manner which is calculated to convey instruction and amusement. Many of the observations contained in these papers may have been rendered obsolete by later and deeper researches into the subjects to which they relate: but, in general, they remain a monument of their author's unaffected science, piety, and benevolence.—The paper on sacrificing to the Graces, No. 96. of this volume, is taken from *The Gray's-Inn Journal*, and is a happy specimen of humorous criticism on the most celebrated writers both antient and modern; and the election at Parnassus is another example of the same style, from the same source. These, however, are, doubtless, familiar to many of our readers, since we can hardly consent to call *The Gray's-Inn Journal* either scarce or neglected.

Volume iii. opens with an admirable paper by Colman, taken from *The Genius*, on diminutive stature. The distresses, insults, and mortifications, to which a man of five feet in height is perpetually exposed, are detailed with infinite humour: but, "amidst all that I suffer, what is peculiarly galling," says he, "is the insolence of those whose stature very little exceeds my own, and who seem to look down on such urchins as myself with a consciousness of their happy superiority. One of these always affects to call me *the little man*; and another small gentleman (a great actor, I mean, whom in some future *histriomastix*, some *nescio quid majus Rosciade*, I may possibly take a peg or two lower) is fond of sidling up to me in all public places, as second-rate beauties commonly contrive to take a dowdy abroad with them as a foil." The quarrel between the author and the actor here meant is well known.—This volume contains also some tales, and allegories, which will be read with much interest: but the best specimens are from *The Microcosm*, and *The Olla Podrida*. The former work, it will be remembered, was produced entirely by Eton-boys; and it is not a little satisfactory to observe that the productions of writers so young and inexperienced should be able to stand a comparison, in point of composition and critical discernment, with almost any work of the same class. The humor of *The Olla Podrida* is, perhaps, superior.—No. 131. contains some satirical observations on the

the proclamation against vice and immorality, which are copied from the last-mentioned paper: but, perhaps, the happiest specimen in this volume is the account in No. 127. of Omai's observations on English manners and customs, copied from *The Loiterer*, of which work we took notice in our viith vol. N. S. p. 44.

Volume iv. is principally remarkable for the selections from *The Bee*, a paper by the late Dr. Anderson, which occupy the larger part of it. These essays contain a very useful body of criticism on classical authors, and on the literature of France, Italy, Spain, and England: the remarks are for the most part just, and always spirited: but we have been most struck with those on Don Quixote, in No. 270., and regret that our limits do not allow us to extract them. In Nos. 147. and 148., we have from the same paper the story of Melai, a deposed Prince of Hindostan, and his dog, which is as affecting as any narrative that we ever read. The tale of the Dean of Badajoz, at No 153., is in style very similar to Gil Blas, and forms an excellent sequel to the story, written, we believe, by Addison, of the Prince who passed through the events of a long life in imagination, while in reality he merely plunged his head into a bucket of water: it also places in a striking point of view the ingratitude of those who, when they have acquired the object of their desires, forget and despise the friends to whom they are indebted for the attainment. — The story of Emma, from *The Ranger*, is also highly interesting to the lovers of romance.— No. 146. of this volume contains a poem on seduction, which has considerable merit: but we are sorry that we cannot bestow equal commendation on the other poetical selections in these volumes, the generality of which are of a meagre and inferior description: though we must except an admirable little poem by Mr. Nolan, quoted at page 127. of volume iv.

On the whole, we think that Dr. Drake has executed the task, which he has imposed on himself in the compilation of these volumes, with much judgment and ability. We are, however, obliged to notice some particulars, in which we apprehend that he is liable to censure. In the first place, we are not altogether satisfied with his selection of works. In such an undertaking, it was indispensably necessary that none should be admitted but those which were, in the strictest sense, scarce or neglected; and we cannot allow that either of those epithets ought to be applied to publications of so much notoriety and character as *The Covent-Garden Journal*, *The Gray's-Inn Journal*, *The Microcosm*, *The Olla Podrida*, and *The Bee*. Had the papers from these works been excluded, we are ready to admit that The Gleaner would have lost many of his most luxuriant ears of corn: but,

in

in taking them, he has been plucking from sheaves already bound and stacked, and has exceeded that latitude which indulgent custom has given to his occupation. We fear, too, that in so doing he may have left much, which it would have been within his province to collect, scattered on the ground.

In the labour of editing, we are sensible that Dr. Drake has shewn much attentive exertion. Some incorrectness is, however, to be found; particularly in quotations from other languages. For instance, the three Latin lines copied in page 99. of volume iv. must be incorrect, since the second and third will not scan: the case is the same with the Latin motto to No. 103., and the Italian one prefixed to No. 147. These, and some few other instances, remind us of the numerous faults of a similar description which were observable in the "Literary Hours;" although, on the whole, we are happy to perceive a considerable improvement in Dr. Drake in this respect, since he commenced his literary labours. The most remarkable example of this incorrectness in the present volumes is in the quotation, (Vol. iv. p. 238.) of the well known and beautiful passage from the *Pastor Fido* of Guarini, beginning "*O primavera gioventù de l'anno.*" In the 9th line, we have "*perduta*" for "*perduto:*" in line 14. "*si caro*" should be two words instead of one: in line 16. "*perdirve*" should be "*perderve,*" and no stop should be placed at the end of the line; and in the concluding line, the second word should be "*dileguato,*" instead of "*delegnato,*" which is not an Italian word. This last error is the more extraordinary, because there is an *Ovidianism* in the apposition of "*dileguato*" and "*dileguasse,*" (which last word, by the way, is spelt wrong,) that should have led the transcriber to the real words: — we suspect, however, from this and other specimens, that the Doctor is unacquainted with the Italian language. We cannot, moreover, commend Dr. Drake for encumbering his volumes with such old stories as that of the highwayman, vol. iii. p. 31., and the apparition, at p. 411. of vol. i.

In the last place, we are disposed to think that the editor would have added much to the interest of his work, if, at the end of each paper selected, he had mentioned the name of the author or reputed author. This he has done in some instances, but in the majority he is contented with referring to his former publication, in which every information of that kind is to be found. We will not for a moment suppose that this is intended as a means of making the present production drag the other into circulation, which would be both unnecessary and unbecoming in a writer of so much popularity; and perhaps it might have been difficult to make the assignment which we propose, to the full extent

extent: yet, as far as it was practicable, we wish that it had been done. Much of the interest of a collection of this kind arises from an acquaintance with the writers of the different papers; more especially when those papers are the productions of men who have been previously well known and admired.

We have deemed it our duty to make the preceding observations, because we have little doubt that the editor will have the opportunity of profiting by such of them as he may conceive to be worthy of attention; and we dismiss his book with real gratitude to him for the large portion of information and amusement which we have received from the perusal of it.

ART. III. *Essays on the Superstitions of the Highlanders of Scotland;* to which are added, Translations from the Gaelic; and Letters connected with those formerly published. By the Author of "Letters from the Mountains." (Mrs. Grant.) Crown 8vo. 2 Vols. 12s. Boards. Longman and Co. &c. 1811.

THE ostensible subject of these volumes is, in its own nature, sufficiently limited, and must derive its interest chiefly from accidental and local associations. The fair author, however, who writes with more ease than correctness, and who is no rigid adherent to unity of design, allows not herself to be entangled in the *thread of her discourse*, or fettered by such trifling circumstances as a title-page and table of contents. Indeed, a small portion only of the present publication directly bears on its avowed object; and, although the first essay professes to treat of 'the Superstitions of the Highlands, their Origin, and Tendency,' the connection between this "shewing" and the text is so shadowy and mysterious, that no critic, ungifted with the *second sight*, can very readily discern it. We are indeed presented with some nicely-trimmed sentences on particular stages in the progress of human society, and with something like the good lady's displeasure at philosophers and men of science, for neglecting the delightful occupation of studying the Erse language: but not a single ghost or fairy even beckons in the distance.

Essay ii. is intitled, 'On the Obstacles, which so long prevented the Legends and Traditions, preserved in the Celtic or Gaelic Language from becoming the Objects of learned Research; and on the Causes which prevented those who understood them from giving them their due Value and Importance, in what regards general Science.' The largest portion of this essay, however, can be considered only as a vague and exaggerated picture of the *poetical* and *sentimental* state of society among our northern mountaineers, at a period in which they are admitted

admitted to have been 'ignorant of letters.' This last-mentioned circumstance, and the mutual hatred and contempt which subsisted between the Highland and the Lowland races of inhabitants, are stated as obstacles to the diffusion of Gaelic legends and traditions; while the defective education of the higher ranks, in a more downward period, may account for their want of zeal in exploring the dark and doubtful recesses of Ossianic lore: but 'general science' needs not very anxiously inquire about the superstitions of uninstructed tribes.

The third Essay relates to 'the Causes which, precluding Strangers from settling in the Highlands, prevented any Knowlege of the Language or Customs of the Country from being obtained through such a Medium.' These causes, as here assigned, are the importance and respect which attached to matrimonial alliances between Highland families, the difference of manners which subsisted between the inhabitants of the Highland and the Lowland districts, and the circumstance of the former being already sufficiently stocked with the true Celtic breed. Now, all these causes, to say nothing of cold and poverty, might certainly contribute to deter strangers from venturing across the Grampian ridge: but, still, the consideration of such particulars has no immediate reference to Highland superstitions. They might, at all events, have been dispatched in the course of a few sentences: but, to do Mrs. Grant justice, when she lays hold of a darling theme, she is unwilling to let it go; and, in the present instance, she expatiates on the purity and felicity of the wedded state with such romantic pathos as almost to tempt us, if we could but prove our Celtic extraction, to renounce our wigs and quills, and seek for happiness in the paradise of *Badenoch*.

Of the fourth Essay the title is two-fold; 1. 'The particular State of Society, in which a Belief of the Existence of separate Spirits, and their Re-appearance, most probably originated. 2. An Attempt to assign the Motives of such Belief in the earlier Periods of Society.' Aware, perhaps, that the enunciation of such topics might be regarded as of a too general and prefatory complexion, the author contrives to apply their illustration to the period of 'the reign of the affections' among the Scotish Highlanders; professes her faith in the genuineness of Ossian's Poems; and alludes to other Gaelic ditties, the authenticity of which we very gallantly believe on her own assertion, there being no reference to the originals.

The title of the fifth Essay, 'The Influence of Superstition, when combined with Religion, and rendered, in some degree, subservient to the imperfect Sense of it which then prevailed;' threatens a continuance of general and irrelevant matters: but

take courage, gentle reader; and, if your patience can hold out to peruse about two-thirds of this paper, the subject of the book will at length dawn on your aching eyes, and you will have a glimpse of some of the superstitious notions of the Caledonian Highlanders, duly exemplified by tales and anecdotes.

'It were long and strange to tell all the different forms which superstition assumed; but, in order to go on progressively through the most prominent of them, we shall begin with infancy.

'The first danger to be guarded against, then, was the power of fairies, in taking away the infant, or its mother; who were never considered as entirely safe, till the one was baptized, and the other had performed her devotions at some chapel or consecrated place. All the powers of darkness, and even those equivocal spirits, who did good or evil, as they happened to be inclined, were supposed to yield instantly before the performance of a religious rite, or even a solemn invocation of the Deity.

'But, then, the danger was, that one might be carried off in sleep. Sound orthodoxy would object to this, that the same power guards us waking and asleep. This argument would not in the least stagger a Highland devotee. He would tell you, that till these sacred rites, which admit the child, and re-admit the mother into the church, were performed, both were in a state of impurity; which subjected them (the body, not the soul) to the power of evil spirits; and that it was the duty of the friends of such, to watch them during their sleep, that, on the approach of evil spirits, (who never came unseen,) they might adjure them, in the holiest name, to depart; which they never failed to do, when thus repelled. If these vigilant duties were neglected, the soul of the abstracted [stolen] person might be saved, but his friends, in the privation they sustained, suffered the due punishment of their negligence of what was at once a duty of affection and of religion.

'If, however, they were not able or willing to watch, or wished for a still greater security, the bed, containing the mother and the infant, was drawn out on the floor, the attendant took a Bible, and went thrice round it, waving all the time the open leaves, and adjuring all the enemies of mankind, by the power and virtue contained in that book, to fly instantly to the Red Sea, &c.

'After this ceremony had been gone through, all slept quiet and safely; yet it was not accounted a proof of diligent attachment to have recourse to this mode of securing a night's rest to the watcher.

'When the infant was secured by the performance of this hallowed rite from all risk of being carried away, or exchanged for a fairy, there was still an impending danger, which required the utmost vigilance of mistaken piety to avert. This was not only the well-known dread of an evil eye, which, by a strange coincidence, is to be traced, not only in every country, in the first stages of civilization, but in every age of which any memorials are preserved.

'There was, besides this, an indistinct motion, that it was impious and too self-dependant to boast of the health or beauty of any creature, rational or irrational, which seemed to belong to us; but

which

which was not, in fact, a gift, but a loan to be resumed at pleasure, which we ought not to appropriate, far less glory in.

'The punishment assigned to boasting of what was not, in fact, our own, or praising it without some qualifying expression, to denote our own inability to preserve it, was a very severe one: no less than that of leaving the defenceless babe at the mercy of evil eyes and evil spirits, to be instantly deprived of the vigour, or the bloom and symmetry so admired. An infant, in short, was not to be praised at all, without a previous invocation of the Deity.

'If you praised a fine child, or even a fine heifer or cow, without the usual prelude, the nurse, or dairy-maid, darting at you a look of indignation, was sure instantly to supply the deficiency with "God save the bairn or the beast!" Woe be to you, if any thing happened to either for a week after. Unless you lost all regard for opinion, you found it necessary to comply with this custom.

'The operation of human vanity, or human envy, in bursting the shining bubble of worldly prosperity, was not supposed to be confined to infancy. A Highlander's glory and felicity consisted in the extent of his fold, and the number of his family.

'He could never have too many children, or too many cows; however great the difficulty might be of rearing the first to maturity, or providing winter fodder for the last. But to parade either one's cows, or one's children, in any unnecessary display, or for a stranger to make any remark on the abundance of them, is by no means safe.

'Of this superstition, numberless instances might be given. Of these, the most signalized, which I recollect, derives interest from the royal and beautiful personage concerned in it; it is said to have happened when Queen Mary made that memorable excursion to the North, which proved so fatal to the Gordons.

'She staid for some days at Inverness, in the Castle, (so well known as the scene of King Duncan's murder,) and received there the homage of all the neighbouring gentry and nobility.

'There lived at that time in Ross-shire, a wealthy and powerful family of the name of Monro, whose title I do not remember.

'The laird had been attending his sovereign with all due loyalty on her expedition. The lady had twelve sons, and twelve daughters, many of whom were married, or otherwise detached from the family.

'She was at much pains, however, in collecting them, whenever they were dispersed, to adorn her train, in the presence of royalty.

'The sons were all drest in "Lincoln green," the wonted costume of knights and hunters, and led the procession in gallant array, mounted upon sable steeds. Next, their mother, decked no doubt in her best array, followed, attended by her daughters, attired in white, and mounted on horses of the same colour. This goodly train was ushered into the royal presence, after being duly announced. The matron, dropping on one knee, made obeisance, and told her Sovereign, she had here brought twelve squires and twelve damsels, ready to devote themselves to her service. The Queen started from her seat, overwhelmed with astonishment and admiration, and cried, "Madam, ye sud tak this chaire, ye best deserve it." After this exclamation, the ceremonial was properly adjusted, and the family returned

returned home, enchanted with the grace and loveliness of their accomplished Sovereign. It was, however, remarked, that from that day, they were never again seen together, and that this imprudent mother was the sad survivor of the far greater number of the children thus rashly exhibited.'

Essay vi. sets out with a digression on the 'courteous Manners and Conversation of the Highlanders,' and then proceeds to other 'instances of visionary terrors.' Of these last, some are too long for quotation, and would lose all their charm and circumstance by abridgment. The following, which is of more moderate compass, is no unfavourable sample of Mrs. Grant's "Tales of Wonder:"

'I have already mentioned the prevalent opinion, that the sacred repose of the dead is disturbed by querulous regret, expressed in audible lamentation. It was permitted to speak of them, with sorrow and endearment, but not with repining, or in any terms indicating a wish that they had still remained in a state of sin and suffering.

'Two gentlemen, both of the same name, and connected together by school-days' intimacy, improved into steady friendship, lived very near each other, on opposite sides of the Spey. They were both persons of superior understanding, and great honour and probity. Laws, as I have formerly observed, had very little sway in the Highlands in old times.

'These two worthies lived at a later period: after the year 1745, their chief was proscribed and hunted down by soldiers, a company of which remained nine years in the country exerting their utmost influence to discover him in vain.

'These gentlemen were next to him in the tribe, in point of rank and influence, and they, with their adherents, by their judicious management and inviolable secrecy in all his affairs, contrived for that long period to keep him concealed in caves in the woods, and recesses dug under their houses. To these, the unfortunate outlaw removed by turns, as the search became more or less diligent, in different quarters. Those faithful friends, without any ostensible pretext for doing so, but merely from the respect paid to their family, their wisdom, and their worth, ruled the whole district for many years, and acted on all occasions with a coolness and judgment that forced esteem from those whose purposes they defeated, and whose power they disarmed.

'When a particular circumstance rendered it necessary for the chief to take shelter in France, they contrived the means of his escape with singular address, and were all along engaged in so many important affairs, that they could scarce [scarcely] be classed among the idle and solitary dreamers, who, from seeing very little of this world, are apt to fancy to themselves glimpses of the other. I mention all this to shew how very deeply the imagination in this region of shadows must have been tinctured by the awful forms of other times, whether only known in the songs of the bards, or dimly seen through misty moon-light.

'There

'There could be no greater proof of this, than a little anecdote, which I have heard the representatives of both these important and sapient personages, relate (with full belief) of their respective fathers.

'The attachment between the two families was very great indeed, and encreased by the most painful sympathy. R. (the initial of his title) lost a wife early in life, for whom he ever after lamented during a long and melancholy widowhood. His grief, however, was rather deep than clamorous. Some years after, the same misfortune happened to B. who bore it very ill, and often broke out into bitter complaints on being destined to outlive what was so dear to him. For many years, the friends always contrived to have a daily interview at each other's houses, or on the bridge of Spey, which lay at equal distance between their dwellings, and from whence they used to repair to walk in a beautiful meadow on the shaded banks of the river.

'One summer afternoon, meeting as usual, they went together to their favourite spot. B. lost in reverie, did not attend to the conversation of his friend, but throwing himself upon the ground, with his face downwards, exclaimed in his native tongue, "Alas, that I had but one sight of my dark-haired Anna!" Just as he was uttering these words, his friend, who stood leaning on his staff, meditating a reproof, saw the "dark-haired Anna," in her full dimensions standing in bright sunshine, attired in her usual garb, at the side of her spouse, and looking down on him, with a countenance expressive of mixed compassion and displeasure. R. opened his lips after a little pause to say, "Behold her, and see how you have disturbed her rest," but the vision was gone; and, as he expressed it, "the flowers were not bent where she stood." One may easily imagine the homily upon resignation which this day-dream suggested. I have selected it out of a thousand, from my intimacy with the nearest relations of the individuals concerned, and as an instance how little very sound sense and uncommon strength of character availed to conquer this imaginative habit of mind.'

On the popular subject of the *second sight*, Mrs. Grant has exercised a laudable degree of self-controul; stating only a single case, and acquainting us that much more, which might be said, must rest either on vague rumour, or on the information of persons living, 'who would not chuse to be quoted on such an occasion.'

Several parts of the seventh Essay again diverge from the appropriate business of the publication, and relate to principles of general application in the history of human society. In descanting, however, at large, on the imagined power of pious rites to banish apparitions, and on the credulity and depraved taste of the ignorant, she touches on Highland fairies, *by the by*.

Much of the eighth dissertation is occupied with views of the Highland character, the spirit of clanship, and a pleading in favour of superstition, during the less-advanced periods of soci-

the ninth, the same pleading is somewhat modified; and we
e again dragged into a series of reflections on the character
d manners of the writer's dearly beloved Celts. In the way
collateral illustration, we are presented with a few traits
ich, being (as we conceive) more in unison with the de-
red plan of the treatise, will furnish us with an additional
act or two:

' We avoid speaking of the dead, to save our feelings. They
ak of them intimately, to indulge theirs.

' We consider it as shocking, coarse, and unfeeling, to speak to
r one of his own death, or anticipate what shall be done, when that
ich necessarily happens to all men happens to him. On the con-
ry, the Highlanders, to this day, speak very frequently and fa-
liarly of their own death, and that of their friends. When I say
iliarly, I do not mean to imply levity or carelessness. They
ak with solemnity, but not with horror. It does not seem to
aken gloomy images with them, but those of a calm and chastened
e.

' Indeed, in some instances, they speak of it cheerfully, yet
ally avoiding the exact term by which death is denoted in their
guage. It is always shadowed out under the terms of repose,
clusion, finishing, or some more circumlocutory expression. But
belongs not to a wish to avoid the mention of death, but to the
rative form of speech common to all primitive languages, and
et invariably used in poetry in every language.

A Highlander, in every other instance, singularly cautious of
ng your feelings, or alarming your fears, will very gravely ask
where you mean to be buried; or whether you would not prefer
a place of abode, as being nearer the cemetery [cemetery] of
ncestors.'—

he drain of armed levies, which carries off so many, and of
tions, which takes away many more, do not together check
tion so much as the small-pox. This destroying angel or
was not to be offended, by expressing her ungracious name.
always spoken of as *'m boiadch*, the beauty. It was among
, that this disease generally made its ravages*.

ether they reverenced this ideal personage, as particularly
oned to remove the young and innocent from the evils of life,
appiness; or whether they dreaded her as a permitted agent
nd feared to incense her, by mentioning her under the de-
f *breachk*, is difficult to decide. Perhaps the appellation
y applied to denote the appearance of this imaginary being,
ave been *credibly* informed, has been sometimes visible,
the grey down, over the bed of dying infants, and wear-
n of a beautiful majestic woman, attired in green.'

---

eal name of this disease, in their language, is *Breachk*;
es a broken or variegated surface. They are on no cere-
e inoculated small-pox, which they call boldly "*Breachk*
The Doctor's small-pox.'

Our fair essayist dwells with romantic enthusiasm on days and habits which have passed away: but the reign of clanship was not destined to last for ever; and though the feelings and associations of some of the present race of Scotish mountaineers should suffer a degree of violence, yet, as sober well-wishers to the best interests of the empire, we could very patiently contemplate the entire conversion of their hills into grazing and sheep-farms, and the distribution of the mass of their poor and industrious population among our colonies, our armies, and our manufactures.

The concluding Essay contains a literal version and explanation of *Macgregor na Ruara*, a popular Gaelic song, with a metrical translation of the first fourteen verses. This favourite ditty is not, it should seem, destitute of pathos; and, in the hands of Mrs. Grant, it gives rise to some pertinent remarks on the character of the Highlanders, and the lawless state of society during Montrose's wars.

The general complection of these Essays occasionally betrays an affectation of refined and philosophical research, interspersed with religious and moral sentiments; which, however correct and amiable, yet, when divested of fine phraseology, are abundantly familiar to every well-regulated mind, and, at all events, required not to be mixed up with an account of the wanderings of unenlightened fancy. It likewise occurs to us, that the superstitious creed of the Highlanders and that of the Lowlanders of Scotland may, perhaps, be more assimilated than Mrs. Grant seems to apprehend; since ghosts, fairies, *kelpies* (water-sprites), &c. have had their reign on both sides of the Forth and the Tay, and *raiths*, or phantoms of dying or departed friends, are merely modifications of the *second sight*. We may add that the old names of places, in many parts of the low countries, still attest that they were originally inhabited by a Celtic tribe. That a belief in visible and supernatural agents should linger in the recesses of dreary mountains, when it had gradually died away with the progress of culture and population in the plains, is a problem of no very difficult solution; and it is to be lamented that the present writer, instead of exhibiting a simple picture of superstitious ideas and practices, should overlay her incidental notices of a few of the most prominent of them with wordy disquisition and unmeaning sentimentality. If we rightly appreciate her talents, she chiefly excels in epistolary composition, particularly that species of it which portrays domestic incidents and scenery. Of the fifteen letters annexed to the Essays, that which had been penned for the perusal of her children is by far the most interesting: but the style of all is lively and pleasing, and sometimes rises to elegance. Her verbal and grammatical delinquencies

quencies are more numerous than we could have supposed: t, with all their defects and blemishes, these volumes are culated to convey both instruction and amusement to easy d good-natured readers.

RT. IV. *Letters addressed to the People of the United States of America*, on the Conduct of the past and present Administrations of the American Government, towards Great Britain and France. By Colonel Timothy Pickering, formerly Secretary of State to the Government of the United States. 8vo. pp. 168. 5s. Printed in America; and reprinted for Longman and Co., London.

RT. V. *An Address to the People of the United States:* by the Hon. Robert Smith, late Secretary of State. To which are added, a Review of the above, and Mr. Pickering's Addresses to the same: also certain Observations on the Release of American Property, from the American Papers. 8vo. pp. 96. 2s. 6d. Reprinted for Hatchard, London.

THE anxiety with which the public are now looking to the proceedings of the American government naturally creates solicitude for information respecting the leading individuals that country; and though it fortunately happens that the ople of the United States possess influence enough to force eir rulers eventually to accept the fair terms which our go-ernment have at last agreed to offer, the time and the anner in which this will take place may greatly depend on e disposition of persons in office. We have accordingly taken p the tracts mentioned above with the view of giving some count of the late and present administrators of the United tates. Both are the productions of men who are now unfettered y the restraints of office; for it happens, by an odd coinci-ence, that each of the writers was dismissed from his situation: n important circumstance, which it is the part of the reader to ep in view, and which shoud lead him to qualify, in his conclu-ons, the angry ebullitions in which mortified consequence is apt indulge. With this preliminary caution, we may safely look r a considerable share of information from these pamphlets; ince their authors were stationed at the fountain-head of intelli-ence, and in a country in which less secresy is observed than most others with regard to affairs of state. Both also take he same side of the question—hostility to the Anti-federalists: ut the periods of which they treat are somewhat different. Ir. Smith, being a much younger man than his literary co-perator, was long posterior to him in the time of dismission om office; the latter having received his *congé* in 1800, and he former so recently as 1811.

I. Mr. Pickering, or, as he is commonly called, Colonel Pickering, is a native of Salem, in Massachusetts, and is old enough to have acted under Washington in the capacity of adjutant-general and quarter-master-general. In succeeding years he occupied civil employments, and, at the end of 1795, received the appointment of Secretary of State; in which situation he continued nearly five years, and was dismissed in May 1800 by President Adams. Returning afterward to his native province, the legislature appointed him in 1803 one of its senators in Congress; and in this station he has since continued.—The object of his publication is to disparage, in the view of his countrymen, the whole series of measures which have been pursued of late years by the Anti-federalists. With this intention, he passes successively in review the Embargo-act, the Non-intercourse-act, the Rambouillet decree by Bonaparte, the unfortunate rencontre of the *Little Belt* British sloop of war with the *President* American frigate, and other occurrences of recent date. The scope of his reasoning is to convict the American government of partiality to France; a plea which, as we shall see presently, is likewise taken up by the Ex-Secretary Smith. This difference, however, prevails between the two, that Mr. Pickering has been always a Federalist, while Mr. Smith's politics appear to have partaken of a more accommodating character. — As many parts of Mr. P.'s Letters relate to topics already discussed in our pages, we shall direct our attention chiefly to his observations on the internal affairs of America; of which the most interesting refer to the characters of Messrs. Adams and Jefferson. To Mr. Madison, likewise, he devotes a chapter: but, as Mr. Smith was long in office with that gentleman, we shall give a preference to *his* account of the President, and confine our abstract of Mr. Pickering's remarks to the description of the prior administrators.

President Adams.—This gentleman has now descended into the "vale of years," and was, as well as Mr. Jefferson, sufficiently advanced in life in 1776 to take a lead in the proceedings against the mother-country. He afterward acted in a diplomatic capacity in Holland and France. Having apparently adhered to the Federalist party, and concurred in Washington's course of policy, he was considered as a fit successor to the latter on his final retirement in 1797: but it soon appeared that he was much less adapted than his predecessor to fill the delicate and difficult station of President. With more liability to excesses of passion than is allowable in a statesman, he discovered a stock of vanity which at his years was thoroughly ridiculous. After some experience of his government, therefore, it became clear that the majority of his countrymen were not

not disposed to pay him the compliment of re-election; and he had penetration enough to discover this negative disposition among several of the leading Federalists. Hence, as his opponents allege, the commencement of his connection with the other party. "*Flectere si nequeo superos, Acheronta movebo.*" Whatever were his motives, certain it is that he broke with his former friends, particularly with General Hamilton, who came boldly forwards, and exposed his wayward conduct through the medium of the press. One of the most sudden and remarkable steps of Mr. Adams was the dismission of Col. Pickering from the Secretaryship of State; and this gentleman, having always been on good terms with him, was not a little surprised by the following notice:

"Sir, "Philadelphia, 10th May, 1800.

"As I perceive a necessity of introducing a change in the administration of the office of State, I think it proper to make this communication of it to the present Secretary of State, that he may have an opportunity of resigning if he chooses. I should wish the day on which his resignation is to take place to be named by himself. I wish for an answer to this letter on or before Monday morning, because the nomination of a successor must be sent to the Senate as soon as they sit.

"With esteem, I am, Sir, your most obedient and humble servant,

"Honourable Timothy Pickering, "JOHN ADAMS."

"Secretary of State."

'It required (says Mr. Pickering) no great sagacity to discover the latent object of this *seemingly* mild proposal. Mr. Adams imagined that I would *resign* to avoid the apparent disgrace of a *dismission*.' Mr. P., however, preferred a *dismission*, by which, he observes, 'I knew it was not in *his* power to *dishonour* me;' and he accordingly replied by a letter of some length, of which the concluding sentence was, "After deliberately reflecting on the overture you have been pleased to make to me, I do not feel it my duty to resign." In about an hour after this answer had been sent to the President, Mr. P. received the following rejoinder:

"Sir, "12th May, 1800.

"Divers causes and considerations, essential to the administration of the government, in my judgment, requiring a change in the department of State, you are hereby discharged from any farther service as Secretary of State. "JOHN ADAMS,

"President of the United States."

This sudden removal from office excited general surprise, and gave rise to various conjectures. As usual, however, these were very wide of the truth, and some years elapsed before

Mr. Pickering himself found out the real cause; when it appeared that his dismission was one of the sacrifices made by Mr. Adams to propitiate his new allies, the Anti-federalists. If it was done with the view of procuring their support to his re-election, however, it came too late, that party being by this time aware that Mr. Adams had not veered round to them till after he had ascertained that his own friends were not disposed to re-invest him with his high office. He was consequently set aside by both parties, and has been obliged to pass his time in retirement; a sacrifice of no small amount to one who was disposed to set a very high value on his capacity to serve the public.—Col. Pickering, when in office with him, was amused to find that he viewed the talents of his son through the same magnifying glass which he was accustomed to apply, with so much complacency, to his own. It happened one day that the Colonel, having occasion to prepare a draught for a diplomatic commission to the son, was doubtful whether he should designate him "late minister resident at the Hague," which is the same as Chargé d'affaires, or "late minister plenipotentiary at Lisbon:" the young man having discharged the functions of the former office, while to the latter he had merely received a nomination, which he afterward declined. Doubtful of the propriety of giving him the higher designation, Mr. P. inserted the humbler title of "minister resident," but used the precaution of shewing the draught, in the first instance, to the father. The President read on till he came to the words "late minister resident of the United States at the Hague," when he burst into a passion, and with a loud and rapid voice exclaimed, "not late minister resident at the Hague, but late minister plenipotentiary of the United States at the court of Lisbon, to which office he was appointed by General Washington — not by me — and so he shall be called." Then lowering his tone, but speaking with earnestness, he added; "I am sorry that my son ever went abroad, as a minister: I wish he had staid at home: for there was not a pen in the United States of which the Jacobins were so much afraid as of my son's."

President Jefferson.—Mr. Pickering is disposed to make equally free with this gentleman as with his predecessor: but here we must pause before we give him our concurrence; since, though it unfortunately happened that Mr. Jefferson, in the latter part of his career, was led to discover considerable hostility to this country, it is incumbent on us to do justice in other respects to his comprehensive and enlightened views of policy. He was a pacific minister in the fullest sense; inclined to that course by natural disposition as strongly as Fleury or Walpole, and better acquainted than either of them with the magnitude of the

the advantages attendant on the system. It was he who first endeavoured to persuade his countrymen that the true way to acquire strength for war was to cultivate the resources of peace. A people, he said, who should expend their revenue in the construction of roads, canals, sea-ports, and other internal improvements, — who should study the increase of population and the extension of resources arising from civil institutions, — would fit themselves much better for a long and arduous contest, than the power which should look exclusively to its army. The vast field open to industry in the territory of the United States impressed Mr. Jefferson with the policy of withdrawing the national attention from maritime affairs, and directing it almost wholly to the cultivation of the soil and other inland employments; and he saw that, separated by their situation from contact with ambitious potentates, the United States might enjoy peace age after age, if they avoided the collisions arising out of foreign navigation. Mr. Jefferson's plan therefore was to confine the American shipping to the coasting-trade, and to leave foreign nations to be the carriers of any merchandise which they chose to bring or to take away. These principles he endeavoured, on his accession to the Presidency in 1801, to carry into effect as far as their novelty allowed them to be practicable. He discouraged the building of ships of war, and ventured to take the extraordinary step of abrogating all direct taxes. During the last ten years, the American people have been exempted from the payment of imposts on houses, lands, &c., and have been subjected to no burden except the custom-house duty on foreign commodities imported. The amount of this duty is now about 20 per cent.: but, as it is collected only at the port of arrival, it may be truly said that "the American citizen never sees the face of a tax-gatherer."

It was in the same spirit of discouraging foreign navigation, that Mr. Jefferson was induced to lay on the general embargo of 22d December 1807. France and England having both discovered a hostile disposition to neutral shipping, the American President thought that the time was come to make an experiment of the abandonment of foreign navigation by his countrymen. Indeed, never did circumstances call more strongly for the measure; and the whole weight of the Anti-federalist party was exerted to give it permanency. During the fourteen months of Mr. J.'s remaining administration, the act was rigidly enforced: but the habits of people in the maritime provinces were too confirmed to yield to the pressure of circumstances, or to the arguments of their philosophic governor; and the first step necessary on Mr. Madison's accession to office was a modification of the embargo, and a prosecution of the negociation with England.

The leading object of Mr. Pickering's address is to throw odium on Mr. Jefferson's administration generally, and especially on the measure of the embargo: but, as Mr. P. is a stranger to the general views which were at the bottom of this policy, it is needless to enter on an examination of his arguments; and the task would be neither interesting nor instructive. We like the author better when he arraigns, in the latter half of his pamphlet, the questionable measures of Mr. Madison. He exposes very effectually (p. 136.) the folly of attempting the conquest of Canada; a country which is ill fitted for incorporation with the United States. Moreover, Canada, being thoroughly French in language, in habits, and in a great measure in disposition, can be a safe neighbour to America only as long as she shall be in the custody of England; the sole power that is able by her navy to deter France from attempting the recovery of her former province, and threatening the territory of the United States.

II. We come now to the second part of our article, the examination of Mr. Smith's pamphlet; which is an appeal to the American people on the injustice of removing him from office. The best way of defending himself is, in his opinion, to attack Mr. Madison; and this he has done with an unsparing hand, and in a style much more pointed and condensed than that of Mr. Pickering.

The rupture between Messrs. Madison and Smith was the more remarkable from being consequent on long and close intimacy. During the eight years of Mr. Jefferson's presidency, they were colleagues in office, and in habits of very frequent intercourse. 'For the last four or five years,' (says Mr. S.) 'Mr. Madison visited me in my office almost every day, for the purpose of interchanging ideas upon some affairs of his department. Seldom did he write a paper of any importance which he did not submit to my consideration before he gave to it its last shape.' He then proceeds to bring forwards his charges against the President, to the number, in all, of eleven. Among the first of these we find a statement of the bills proposed in the session of Congress 1809-10, for the regulation of the commercial intercourse of America with France and England; on which subject, it appears, a serious difference of opinion existed between Messrs. Madison and Smith. The case was as follows. The Non-intercourse law, enacted by the American government in opposition to the hostile edicts of France and England, was about to expire, without any adjustment of the points at issue between those powers and America; and being generally unpopular in the United States, it was evident that the law could not be revived: the question therefore was, first,

what substitute should be provided, and next, in what way the substitute should be brought forwards? Mr. Madison, having made up his mind on the nature of the bill to be proposed, contrived, by an arrangement which in the opinion of some politicians is skill, but which to bold men, like Secretary Smith, appears to be timidity, that its introduction to Congress should take place not by government but through the medium of an independent member. This member was Mr. Macon. The expedient, however, was unsuccessful; and the bill, after having passed the House of Representatives, was lost in the Senate:—but another bill, not dissimilar in spirit, was soon afterward carried through by government, and was called by the opposition-party, in derision, Macon, No. 2. Mr. Smith's objection to Mr. Madison's conduct on this occasion is of a two-fold nature; first, to the tenor of the acts so 'poorly calculated,' he says, 'to effectuate their professed purpose of avenging the insults, of repairing the injuries, and of maintaining the rights of the United States;' and next, to the mode of management adopted by the President, in declining to come forwards with that open recommendation in Congress which the American constitution requires.

The next charge of importance against the President refers to the conduct adopted by him on the intelligence of the repeal of the French decrees in November 1810. In America, as in this country, it was much disputed whether this was or was not a repeal. Mr. Smith, it seems, (p. 18.) maintained the negative; while the President held a very different language, and induced Congress to pass, on that assumption, a Non-importation-act against Great Britain. Mr. Smith complains (p. 32.) that, after having prepared a letter to M. Serrurier, the French minister in America, couched in a style of such pointed interrogation as could not fail to lead to an explicit solution of their doubts, he was not permitted by the President to transmit it. We must be cautious, however, in ascribing the Secretary's dismission to the alledged partiality of Mr. Madison to France; since we find the latter dissapproving equally of Mr. Smith's asperity of language (p. 9.) towards England and (p. 34.) towards Spain. Nay, the Ex-Secretary has no hesitation in professing himself (p. 19.) 'sensible to the insults and injuries which the United States have received again and again from Great Britain.' If we add that it was with him that Mr. Jackson's abrupt quarrel took place, we shall find ample ground for including vehemence of temper among the causes of his removal from office.

The last serious charge which is here brought forwards against the President Madison relates to a transaction of mere office-business, and merits attention chiefly as it may affect Mr. M.'s character

character for veracity. In 1801, Mr. George Erving was appointed American Consul or Agent in London, with a fixed annual salary of 2000 dollars; and in 1808, Mr. Smith, on being made Secretary of State, discovered that Mr. Erving had, in addition to his salary, retained, as a commission for his services, a sum of 22,392 dollars. No letter or trace of authority for this retention was to be found in the department of state; and Mr. Madison, on being questioned, answered that "*he had no knowledge or recollection of any of the circumstances of the affair.*" In the next year, however, Mr. Erving returning to America, and, being pressed to account for his conduct, produced a private letter from *Mr. Madison himself*, dated 3d November, 1804, and authorizing the retention of the money. On making this unexpected discovery, Mr. Smith, with that bluntness which appears to form a chief ingredient in his character, expressed his surprize to the President; who, though much discomposed, had the courage to adhere to his original measure, and directed that his private letter to Mr. Erving should be placed on record as an official document.

We must now advert to the answer published in behalf of Mr. Madison, and printed in the present pamphlet, together with Mr. Smith's address. It proceeds evidently from a person who is acquainted with the views of government, but it appears too coarse and personally abusive to have been dictated by the President himself. Instead of taking Mr. Smith's impatience of temper as the ground of his removal, an attempt is made to convict him of want of capacity and even of want of integrity; and the writer affects to consider Mr. S.'s nomination to office as the effect of intrigue, and represents the most respectable part of the public men in America as surprised at his appointment. Such language as this ought to be consigned to that contempt with which the enlightened and well bred part of mankind are now agreed in receiving intemperate aspersions on public characters. One part of the answer, however, we are inclined to view in a very different light, we mean the censure passed by the writer on Mr. Smith for his promulgation of state-secrets. — The publication of this answer called forth immediately a rejoinder from Mr. Smith; in which, after having censured the tone of abuse which was adopted against him, he proceeds to retort, in a decided manner, the charge of incapacity on the President. He asserts that, before the last presidential election, Mr. Madison's colleagues in office were all of opinion, from their intimate knowlege of him, that he was totally unfit for the efficient duties of the executive department; which, he says, will not be contradicted by any of them, 'nay, not by those who hold their offices at his will and pleasure.'

pleasure.' To this bold accusation of imbecility, he adds a charge not less pointed, of inconsistency, founded on the President's conduct towards Mr. Monroe; with whom, after a great political difference, he chose to form an alliance, without any previous concession or recantation on the part of Mr. Monroe.

Though we are no admirers of either the talents or the political principles of Mr. Madison, we cannot perceive that Mr. Smith has made good any charge against him, except that of want of candour in the affair of Erving. On the other hand, Mr. Smith has said quite enough to prove, as a lawyer would express it, "on his own shewing," that he is an unfit person for the delicate situation of Secretary of State. He is evidently of a temper ill suited to encounter the contradictions inseparable from active life, and incapable of assuming that accommodating tone which a public man finds necessary in the mixed intercourse that is attendant on his situation. He belongs to that class of politicians who are always calling for vigorous measures, and whose impatience prevents them from comprehending how much better they would succeed by the adoption of a conciliatory tone. Moreover, from long habits of office, he appears to be better qualified for composition than for business. The style of real business, as it was long since remarked by Mr. Hume, is always clear and generally concise: but this American diplomatist, like many on our own side of the water, seems to delight in argument and amplification. — Another charge, and of a more serious nature, regards the strain of flattery which Mr. Smith has no scruple in adopting towards his countrymen. He describes himself in one part (p. 26.) as impelled by 'principles and feelings *altogether American*;' in another, (p. 11.) he speaks of the 'good sense, honourable principles, and patriotic feelings of his countrymen;' and in a third place, (p. 13.) he launches into a still higher panegyric, and exclaims about the 'manly, generous feelings of a brave, honourable, enterprising people, as are the people of the United States.' Such a profusion of compliments, while it discovers in the writer a greater share of artifice than other parts of his conduct would lead us to suspect, cannot fail to awaken us to a sense of the blind credulity with which nations are, in general, inclined to listen to the voice of praise. The Americans, a people comparatively of yesterday, appear disposed to take credit, in their national character, for as large an assortment of good qualities as any of our neighbours of old standing on the continent of Europe; and it must be amusing to a philosophic observer to remark with how much self-complacency, nations, the most remote in situation and opposite in habits, concur in the welcome task of en-

grafting on their own character the attributes of power and virtue. The French never doubted Bonaparte's sincerity when he began his flattery, by styling them "*le grand peuple*;" and to assail superior numbers, and to fall in the field of honour, after having killed a host of foes, is, according to them, nothing more than "*vendre la vie à la Française.*" The Dutchman, not contented with naval renown, imagines that the dragoons of his country are the most gallant and efficient cavalry in the universe; while the Spaniard, amid all his defeats, persists in believing himself certain of success without British aid, and declares that, were his countrymen disposed for conquest, they "are easily able to convulse all Europe." One of the latest national compliments which we recollect was bestowed on ourselves, and proceeded from the highest quarter; for a year has not yet passed since our ruler was pleased, in the well-known letter about his "early friends", to honour us with the gratifying appellation of "a candid and enlightened people."

To return to Messrs. Pickering and Smith.—It is to be regretted that the letters of the former, when printed in a connected shape, have not been freed from the repetitions and diffuseness which are attendant on the form of their first publication. Mr. Smith is exempt from censure on this score, but, like his coadjutor, he must be charged with treating his opponents in a style of considerable rudeness. Indeed, the various specimens which we have seen of party-warfare, on the other side of the Atlantic, are little calculated to create a favourable impression of American urbanity. We have had, from time to time, among ourselves, examples of appeals to the public on the part of dissatisfied politicians; and something of the kind took place so lately as in the discussions consequent on the death of Mr. Perceval: but our countrymen are by no means in the habit of indulging in those direct charges of downright incapacity, and want of good faith, which abound in the pages under review. The justification of this bluntness can only be sought in the adoption of a corresponding conduct on the part of the political opponents of these writers. Indeed, the American public seem to be accustomed to the exercise of such freedom, and a considerable time may elapse before they learn to give a preference to more delicate compositions. We are disposed, therefore, to overlook the roughness of manner in the tracts before us, with the hope that their weight in other respects may tend to lessen the influence of the Anti-federalists: a consideration which will be more fully applied and explained in the ensuing article.

ART. VI. *A Dispassionate Inquiry into the Reasons alledged by Mr. Madison for declaring an offensive and ruinous War against Great Britain.* Together with some Suggestions as to a peaceable and constitutional Mode of averting that dreadful Calamity. By a New-England Farmer. 8vo. pp. 88. 2s. 6d. Boston, printed; London, reprinted for Longman and Co. 1812.

ART. VII. *Copies and Extracts of Documents on the Subject of British Impressments of American Seamen.* 8vo. pp. 61. 2s. Longman and Co.

ART. VIII. *American State Papers*, and Correspondence between Messrs. Smith, Pinkney, Marquis Wellesley, General Armstrong, M. Champagny, M. Turreau, Messrs. Russell, Monroe, Foster, &c. Containing also Papers relative to the Annexation of Holland to France; Repeal of the Berlin and Milan Decrees; English and Irish Budget; French State Papers, &c. &c. &c. 8vo. pp. 259. 6s. sewed. Philadelphia, printed; London, reprinted for Longman and Co.

WE have here three publications on the American question which differ very considerably in their spirit and tendency. The first is the production of a *Federalist*, and contains a variety of spirited and pointed arguments against the war: the second is on the opposite side, and consists of the official documents laid by Mr. Madison before the Senate on the much-disputed subject of naval impressments; and the third comprizes a large stock of public papers on both sides of the questions at issue between us and America. As far as political predilection can be said to have entered into the plan of this last compilation, it is in favour of the British or Federalist side: but the editor appears to be tolerably impartial as to national questions, and to have had chiefly in view the laudable plan of levying a contribution on public curiosity. With this object, he has been indefatigable in putting together all that appeared likely to attract attention and accelerate the sale of his book; and, however slender may be his patriotism, or however deficient his taste in arrangement, it must be admitted that he has contrived to collect a greater number of useful materials than is in general presented in the compass of a single volume.

Dissimilar as these respective productions are, we find nothing in their contents to invalidate the character which we have deemed it incumbent on us to give to the American discussion. The writer of the first-mentioned pamphlet, who describes himself as having been a member, in former years, of one of the provincial legislatures, spares no pains to persuade his countrymen to embrace the first favourable opportunity of making peace with Britain; shews no mercy to the war-party;

and

and wields his controversial weapons with a dexterity which leads us to suspect that this *soi-disant* farmer is more familiar with the pen than with the plough. Be he who he may, however, we are glad to find so animated an auxiliary to the English cause on the other side of the Atlantic; since the object of all well-wishers to this country should be to accelerate an amicable adjustment with America. The time is not yet come, either in the United States or in Great Britain, in which the sober language of unexaggerated reasoning can be expected to prevail with all classes of people; and there, as well as here, considerable numbers are ready to receive any impressions which government chuses to give. Among us, (until lately) the policy of the cabinet, and of its subservient publications, was to excite distrust and jealousy of the American government; which, we were told, was partial to France, and wonderfully enraged at England. The consequence has been that, down to the present day, the chief part of our countrymen seriously believe our ministers to have been in the right in all their differences with the United States; — while, in the same way, the American government has of late striven hard to unite the nation in war-measures, and, by preaching up their necessity, to obtain the utmost possible credit for their course of policy before they lay down their arms.

From these circumstances, it follows that a distinction is to be made with regard to the course of argument which should be pursued by the friends of peace in the two countries. With us, the point is to scrutinize, in official documents, the conduct of our ministers previously to the late change, and to efface from our minds the false impressions of *ex parte* statements. In America, it is important to persuade the public that the British government has seen its error, and has no intention of exercising any farther hostility against their trade. Such being the object of the first of the pamphlets under review, we cordially wish it success; and it is undesirable to dwell on particular examples of error or exaggeration, when the general tendency of the work is in favour of a good cause. Though we may differ in the view of specific points, the scope of the reasoning is the same as that which, were we writing in America, we should feel it our duty to inculcate. Without entering, therefore, into any animadversions on this pamphlet, we shall direct our attention to the remaining publications; an examination of which will tend to throw light on two interesting topics. It will enable us to shew what many still profess to doubt, that, in objecting to the impressment of their seamen, the Americans have no view against what we call our maritime rights; and in the next place, it will satisfy the public

that

that our recent differences have sprung from no other source than our own cabinet.

I. *Impressment of American seamen.* — A primary consideration in this anxious question is the long duration of the hardship attendant on acts of impressment. They generally take place in the West Indies or some other distant quarter, and the admiral on the station commonly declines interfering in behalf of the impressed men; his great object being to increase, or, at least, to keep up the number of his crews. During the last war, the Americans found so much subject of complaint from the conduct of our officers on the Jamaica-station, that they were induced to send thither an officer for the special purpose of endeavouring to remedy the evil; and of his success in this mission, we may form an idea from the following extract of a letter from the American Secretary of State to Mr. King, the ambassador at our court:

"Trenton, Oct. 3, 1797.

"I consider Col. Talbot's agency in the West Indies to be no longer very important. The rigid conduct of Admiral Sir Hyde Parker (who from the beginning has thrown obstacles in the way) leaves but little room to get our seamen released. The opposition of the officers in general induced Colonel Talbot to take out writs of habeas corpus at Jamaica, by which, directly, or in their consequences, he obtained the discharge of near fifty seamen: but Admiral Parker has some time past forbidden his officers to pay any obedience to such writs; and Col. Talbot informs me that some of our seamen have been punished for attempting to send letters to him to inform of their situation. Mr. Liston has assured me that the British Officers have orders not to impress any American seamen, and of course not to retain against their will any already impressed: but if they persist in obstructing every channel of information and proof of their citizenship, such orders are and will continue deceptive."

The consequence was that, to obtain the release of an American seaman, it was generally necessary to transmit a certificate to London for the inspection of the Admiralty, which office would then consent to issue an order for discharge: but, in the pestilential climate of the West Indies, such orders frequently came too late. It ought likewise to be remembered that merchant-vessels carry no more hands than their safety requires, so that to withdraw any of the men is to endanger both ship and cargo. On a station, too, in which seamen are so difficult to replace as in the West Indies, the consequence of an unjust impress has frequently been the detention of a vessel, the decay of her timbers by the worm, and deaths among her crew from the climate:

'*Extract of a Letter from John Marshall, Esq. Secretary of State, to Rufus King, Minister Plenipotentiary of the United States at London, dated*

" Department of State, Sept. 20, 1800.

" The impressment of our seamen is an injury of very serious magnitude, which deeply affects the feelings and the honor of the nation."—

" No right has been asserted to impress the natives of America. Yet they are impressed, they are dragged on board of British ships of war, with evidence of citizenship in their hands, and forced by violence there to serve, until conclusive testimonials of their birth can be obtained. These must, most generally, be sought for on this side the Atlantic. In the mean time, acknowledged violence is practised on a free citizen of the United States, by compelling him to engage and to continue in foreign service. Although the Lords of the Admiralty uniformly direct their discharge on the production of this testimony, yet many must perish unrelieved, and all are detained a considerable time in lawless and injurious confinement."—

" The mere release of the injured, after a long course of service and suffering, is no compensation for the past, and no security for the future. It is impossible not to believe that the decisive interference of the Government in this respect, would prevent a practice, the continuance of which must inevitably produce discord between two nations which ought to be the friends of each other."—

" We know well, that among that class of people who are seamen, we can readily distinguish between a native American and a person raised to manhood in Great Britain or Ireland; and we do not perceive any reason why the capacity of making this distinction should not be possessed in the same degree by one nation as by the other.'"—

" We hope, that an agreement may be entered into satisfactory and beneficial to both parties. The article which appears to have been transmitted by my predecessor, while it satisfies this country, will probably restore to the naval service of Britain a greater number of seamen than will be lost by it. Should we even be mistaken in this calculation, yet the difference cannot be put in competition with the mischief which may result from the irritation justly excited by this practice, throughout the United States. The extent and the justice of the resentments it produces, may be estimated, in Britain, by inquiring what impressions would be made on them by similar conduct on the part of this Government.

" Should we impress from the merchant service of Britain, not only Americans but foreigners, and even British subjects, how long would such a course of injury unredressed be permitted to pass unrevenged? How long would the Government be content with unsuccessful remonstrance and unavailing memorials?"

'*Extract of a Letter from Rufus King, Esq. to the Secretary of State, dated*

" London, April 13, 1797.

" I have, since the month of July past, made application for the discharge from British men of war of 271 seamen, who, stating themselves to

be Americans, have claimed my interference. Of this number, have been ordered by the Admiralty to be discharged; 37 more re been detained as British subjects, or as American volunteers, or want of proof that they are Americans; and to my applications the discharge of the remaining 148, I have received no answer; ships on board of which these seamen were detained, having, in my instances, sailed before an examination was made in consequence my applications.

"It is certain, that some of those who have applied to me are not merican citizens, but the exceptions are, in my opinion, few, and evidence, exclusive of certificates, has been such as, in most cases, satisfy me, that the applicants were real Americans, who have been ced into the British service, and who, with singular constancy, we generally persevered in refusing pay and bounty, though in some tances they have been in service *more than two years.*"

From the Same.

"London, March 15, 1799.

"IMPRESSING OF SEAMEN.

"I mentioned to Lord Grenville our dissatisfaction with the con- uation of the practice of taking out of our ships, met on the main ea, such of their crews as did not possess certificates of American izenship; that not only seamen who spoke the English language, and o were evidently English or American subjects, but also all Danish, edish, and other foreign seamen, who could not receive American tections, were indiscriminately taken from their voluntary service our neutral employ, and forced into the war in the naval service of eat Britain.

"That on this subject we had again and again offered to concur a convention, which we thought practicable to be formed, and ich should settle these questions in a manner that would be safe for gland, and satisfactory to us.

"That to decline such convention, and to persist in a practice ich we were persuaded could not be vindicated, especially to the ent to which it was carried, seemed less equitable and moderate an we thought we had a right to expect.

"Lord Grenville stated no precise principle upon which he sup- ed this practice could be justified, and the conversation upon this int, like many others upon the same subject, ended without a spect of satisfaction. The French and Spaniards, and every other tion, might pursue the same conduct as rightfully as Great Britain es. With respect to foreign seamen in our employ, this government s, if I recollect, yielded the point, though their officers continue e practice."

From the Same;—July 1803.

"As soon as the war appeared to me unavoidable, I thought it visable to renew the attempt to form an arrangement with the British Government for the protection of our seamen. With this iew, I had several conferences, both with Lord Hawkesbury and Mr. Addington, who avowed a sincere disposition to do whatever might

might be in their power to prevent the dissatisfaction on this subject that had so frequently manifested itself during the late war: with very candid professions, I however found several objections, in discussing the project with the First Lord of the Admiralty."

The chief difficulty on the part of Lord St. Vincent, who was then at the head of the Admiralty, arose from a reluctance to permit any interference with our controul of what is called "the narrow seas:" but his Lordship seems to have been a stranger to the former proceedings on the subject. On one occasion, in the year 1800, the two governments appear to have made a considerable approach towards an amicable agreement; and the proposition offered by the Americans deserves to be recapitulated:

1st, No refuge or protection shall be afforded to seamen or others, who may hereafter desert from British vessels: but, on the contrary, all such deserters shall be delivered up on demand, at any time within two years after the desertion, on the exhibition of the shipping-paper or contract, or other satisfactory evidence.

2d. Commanders of vessels, consuls, and vice-consuls, shall be empowered to arrest deserters, who, on the production of proof before the competent officer, shall be kept in prison until they can be sent back to their own country; provided that this take place within three months after the arrest.

3d. No refuge shall be afforded to military deserters: but, on the contrary, they, like the sailors, shall be forthwith apprehended and delivered up to their officers, or to the consuls and vice-consuls.

4th. It is, however, understood that British officers shall not be at liberty to enter forcibly the territory of the United States, or to board American vessels, public or private, with a view of compelling the delivery of any person whatever.

Equitable as these propositions may appear, they, like others on the same subject, were of no avail. The obstacle most difficult to surmount was in the last clause. Our government was willing to relinquish all claim to enter American forts, or to board their ships *of war* in quest of deserters, but it could not, with safety, renounce the practice of boarding merchantmen. Here, it must be confessed, lies the great difficulty of the question; a difficulty not to be overcome, we fear, until our Admiralty shall deem it proper to render our navy-service a voluntary engagement. With how much ease and how much advantage this most desirable change may be effected, we have already endeavoured* to shew. Until our eyes are opened

* Vol. lxv. p. 218. and Vol. lxviii. p. 66. See also the present Number, pp. 12, 13.

respect-

respecting our navy, as they have in some measure been with regard to our army, we see no prospect of an end to mutual abuses in our intercourse with the Americans, but false protections will be obtained from American magistrates, and unjust impressments will continue on the part of our officers.

We believe it has not unfrequently happened that a British officer, on boarding an American vessel, has rather considered whether a man was worth pressing than whether he had a right to be free. In the beginning of these irregularities, it was proposed, on the part of the Americans, that the number of men to be protected by a merchantman should be specifically limited by the tonnage: but, as this expedient contained no provision for distinguishing the native country of the crew, it was obviously inadmissible. On our part, the original proposition was that native Americans should carry with them certificates of citizenship. Nothing could be more proper than to regard the possession of an authentic certificate as a protection from impressment: but it would be very hard to subject a man to seizure for the want of such a document, when we consider the habitual carelessness of seamen, and the hazard of their losing papers by shipwreck and otherwise. Moreover, we know not any example of any nation allowing seamen to be taken out of their ships for want of particular certificates.

In conformity with one of those laws which a sollicitude for our navigation suggested in former years to our legislature, a foreigner acquires the rights of a British subject by serving three years on board a British vessel; and it occurred to the Americans, in 1796, that the rights of American citizenship might be claimed in bar of impressment, by all foreigners who had lived as long as five years under their jurisdiction: but, on second thoughts, they forbore to urge so exceptionable a proposition. Though our navigation-law was not found applicable to the case in question, our adverting to it is of use in pointing out the different measures which our countrymen are inclined to give and take in all maritime matters. With what temper should we be disposed to receive an account that a press-gang of Swedes or Danes had ventured to board a British merchantman, on the plea of taking out their respective seamen, and had forcibly carried off a number of our men? While on this part of the subject, it may be useful to correct another error, which, whether wilfully or from ignorance, is at present very generally circulated through our news-papers;—we mean that the Americans refuse to acknowlege our right of search. This correction may be very easily made by a reference to official papers. Their Secretary of State, writing to our envoy, Mr. Liston, says expressly,

"Department of State, Philadelphia, May 3, 1800.

"By the law of nations, the right of a belligerent power to capture and detain the merchant vessels of neutrals, on just suspicion of having on board enemy's property, or of carrying to such enemy any of the articles which are contraband of war, is unquestionable."

In order to give the testimony of the highest legal authority on this important point, we add an extract from the following letter:

The Attorney General of the United States to the President.

"Philadelphia, February 26, 1800.

"A belligerent has a right to stop a neutral ship on the high sea, suspected to have on board either contraband merchandise destined to an enemy's port, or enemy's goods, and a right to send such neutral ship to a competent court for examination and trial; and it is equally true that this right *is recognized in the President's instructions to the American ships of war.*"

On this difficult and vexatious subject, we only farther cite a passage from a letter of the American Secretary of State in 1810 to Mr. Pinkney:

"October 19th, 1810.

"If the British government be sincerely disposed to come to a good understanding, and to cultivate a friendly intercourse with the United States, it cannot but be sensible of the necessity, in addition to a compliance with the act of Congress, of concluding at this time a general arrangement of the topics between the two countries; and, above all, such an one as will, upon equitable terms, effectually put a stop to the insufferable vexations to which our seamen have been and are yet exposed, from the British practice of impressment; a practice which has so strong a bearing on our neutrality, and to which no nation can submit consistently with its independency. To this very interesting subject you will therefore recall the attention of the British government, and you will accordingly consider yourself hereby authorized to discuss and adjust the same separately, conformably to the instructions in my letter to you of the 20th January last."

II. *The Conduct of our Cabinet towards America, during the Years of Altercation which preceded the Repeal of our Orders in Council.*—The collection of *American State Papers* has been composed, as we already hinted, by a person who is desirous of throwing odium on the French cause in America. The offensive papers of that government are therefore given at great length, and the insulting passages are marked in italics: yet it is difficult to peruse a single set of these papers without finding matter of serious regret in the conduct of our ministers; and the whole, when attentively analyzed, conveys a far different impression from the garbled statements which our Cabinet has chosen

chosen occasionally to publish. Little, it seems, did those among us, who good naturedly took the ministerial speeches and declarations in a literal sense, suspect the real character of their proceedings towards America. The persons chiefly implicated in this remark are Lord Wellesley and Mr. Canning; and, though we have not the most distant wish to insinuate a doubt of their good intentions towards our country, their conduct must be the object of censure in two ways: first, in obstinately pursuing a system which the recent renunciation has acknowleged to be pernicious, and next in having recourse to methods incompatible with good faith, and unbecoming the character of British ministers.

The correspondence now published commences in January 1810, some time after the suspension of negotiation by the abrupt departure of Mr. Jackson from Washington. A letter (p. 12.) from the American Secretary of State transmits to Mr. Pinkney full powers for the resumption of the interrupted treaty; and to negotiate in London was a concession which the Americans considered as due to us, after the hasty behaviour of their Secretary to Mr. Jackson. The chief consideration, suggested by this and the subsequent letters, is the confidence entertained by the Americans that our ministers were sincere in their professions of accommodation:

'*Extract of a Letter from Mr. Smith to Mr. Pinkney, dated*

"Department of State, January 20, 1810.

"In my letter to you of the 11th November 1809, you were authorized to assure the British government, that the United States sincerely retained the desire which they have constantly professed to facilitate a friendly accommodation of all the existing differences between the two countries, and that nothing would be more agreeable to them than to find the successor of Mr. Jackson invested with all the authorities necessary for the accomplishing of so desirable an event, and, moreover, that if the attainment of this object through your agency should be considered more expeditious, or otherwise preferable, it would be a course entirely satisfactory to the United States."

An interval of four months elapsed, during which the Americans eagerly looked for conciliatory communications from England; and, on the expiration of that time, we find them surprised and disappointed at the unfriendly tone of our government:

'*Mr. Smith to Mr. Pinkney.*

"Sir, "Department of State, May 22, 1810.

"The President has read with surprise and regret the answer of Lord Wellesley to your letter of the 2d of January, and also his reply to your note requiring explanations with respect to the blockade of

France. The one indicates an apparent indifference as to the character of the diplomatic intercourse between the two countries, and *the other evinces an inflexible determination to persevere in their system of blockade.*"

In the autumn of that year, the American government having received notice from Paris of the intended repeal of the Berlin and Milan Decrees on 1st November, the Secretary of State thus writes to Mr. Pinkney:

" 19th October, 1810.

" If the proceedings of the French government, when officially received, correspond with the printed letter of the Duke of Cadore, you will let the British goverment understand that on the first day of November the President will issue his proclamation, conformably to the act of Congress, and that the Non-intercourse law will consequently be revived against Great Britain. This consideration ought to have its weight in dissuading the British government from the policy, in every respect misjudged, of procrastinating the repeal of its illegal edicts."

Mr. Pinkney, anticipating the wish of his government, had taken an early opportunity of apprizing our cabinet of the intended repeal of the French decrees:

' *Mr. Pinkney to Marquis Wellesley.*

" My Lord, " Great Cumberland Place, Aug. 25, 1810.

" I have the honour to state to your Lordship that I have received from General Armstrong, minister plenipotentiary of the United States at Paris, a letter bearing date the 6th instant, in which he informs me that the government of France has revoked the Decrees of Berlin and Milan, and that he has received a written and official notice of that fact in the following words: " Je suis autorisé à vous declarer, monsieur, que les décrets de Berlin et de Milan sont révoqués, et qu'à dater du ier. Novembre, ils cesseront d'avoir leur effet."

" I take for granted that the revocation of the British Orders in Council of January and November, 1807, and April, 1809, and of all other orders, dependent upon, analogous to, or in execution of them, will follow of course; and I shall hope to be enabled by your Lordship, with as little delay as possible, to announce to my government that such revocation has taken place.

" I have the honour to be, &c. &c.

" William Pinkney."

To this letter the Marquis did not consider it as advisable to return a direct negative. His plan was to profess a doubt of the actual repeal of the French decrees, and to reply, in general terms, that the Orders in Council should be rescinded " whenever the commerce of neutral nations was restored by the French to its former condition."—The American minister now exerted himself to obtain from Paris authentic evidence of the repeal;

repeal; and the ensuing extract of a letter from Mr. Russell, American *Chargé d'affaires* at Paris, to his government, is indicative of the eagerness with which he laboured in the cause:

"Paris, 11th December, 1810.

"On the evening of the 9th I learned, that the Essex frigate had arrived at L'Orient [from America], and had been put under quarantine for five days for want of a bill of health, during which time the messenger is not allowed to come on shore. I have informed Mr. Pinkney of the arrival of the Essex, and suggested to him the possibility that the proclamation of the President had come over by her, in order that he might, if he thought proper, make a final attempt to obtain a repeal of the Orders in Council, while it was yet in the power of the British ministry to do it with a good grace."

The urgency, however, of Mr. Pinkney and Mr. Russell was unavailing; our ministers seriously believed the Orders in Council to be a politic measure, and were secretly determined not to renounce them as long as any plausible pretext remained for the enforcement of them. Their feelings in this respect are strikingly illustrated by a document in the collection before us, of a nature somewhat different from those which we have quoted. Our readers will recollect that, three years ago, when Bonaparte thought the time was come to seize and incorporate Holland, he endeavoured, with his usual perfidy, to throw a share of the odium on England; and, with that view, he apprized the Dutch that he would desist from his intention, provided that England would repeal the Orders in Council. The Dutch, anxious to lay hold of any idea which afforded the slightest hope, prevailed immediately on M. Labouchere, a respectable merchant connected with the well-known houses of Hope in Amsterdam and Baring in London, to repair to the British ministers, and represent the extreme urgency of their case. Our cabinet easily saw through the artifice of Bonaparte, and, while they lamented the distresses of Holland, declined to place any confidence in his promise, or to pay any attention to his overture; and they delivered to M. Labouchere an unsigned note, expressive of their determination to make no alteration in their course of policy. We extract a part of that gentleman's report to the Dutch government:

"London, 12th February, 1810.

"The undersigned having received from their excellencies the ministers, orders to repair immediately to England with written instructions, for the purpose of communicating to the English government the situation of Holland; and of intimating to it the methods which appeared most likely to avert the fate which threatened the country, instantly proceeded to the Briel. He arrived there on the 2d of February, departed from thence on the 3d, landed at Yarmouth in

the evening of the 5th, immediately set out for London, and arri[ved] there on the evening of the 6th. On the morning of the 7th, [he] requested an audience of the Marquis Wellesley, minister of fore[ign] affairs, which was granted to him on the same day, at half past [one] o'clock. After having communicated to his excellency the tenor [of] his instructions, and thoroughly discussed the principal question, [he] left the minister, having received a promise that he would lay [the] communications before the council, and would acquaint him with [the] result.

"Not having received any intimation from his excellency until [the] 11th, the undersigned addressed a few lines to the minister, requesting him to enable the undersigned to give some account or indication of the ideas and disposition of the English government, by a conveyance which then offered. In consequence, he received, at twelve, an invitation for the same day, at nine in the evening, at which hour he went, and received an unofficial communication without signature, of which a copy is annexed."—

"It appeared that the English ministry attaches infinite weight and importance to these Orders in Council, which form the immediate object of the overture of the government of Holland.—In fact, those measures appear to form the fundamental basis of the system upon which the present ministry founds all its principles and every part of its conduct, and it would appear that, so long as the war shall continue, it is only *from a change of ministry that we may expect other measures and other views.*"

To return to the American correspondence.—Our ministers having delayed, during a whole year, the appointment of a minister to the United States, the American government accounted it incumbent on them to recall Mr. Pinkney; and the order to that gentleman to return appears to have reached him about the time at which he had succeeded in discovering the secret drift of Lord Wellesley's general language and vague promises.

'*Mr. Pinkney to Mr. Smith.*

"Sir, "London, January 17, 1811.

"I had the honour to receive on the 5th instant, while I was confined by a severe illness, your letter of the 15th of November, and as soon as I was able, prepared a note to Lord Wellesley, in conformity with it.

"On the 3d instant, I had received a letter from Lord Wellesley, bearing date the 29th ultimo, on the subject of the Orders in Council and the British blockades.—My answer to that letter was written under the pressure of indisposition, and the influence of more indignation than could well be suppressed. His letter proves, what scarcely required proof, that if the present government continues, we cannot be friends with England."

On quitting London, Mr. Pinkney left Mr. J. S. Smith in the capacity of *Chargé d'affaires*; who continued to correspond

with Mr. Russell at Paris, for the purpose of obtaining proofs calculated to satisfy our ministry of the repeal of the French decrees. Mr. Russell was indefatigable in this respect; and his letters of the 5th and 14th July 1811, printed in this collection, contain sufficient evidence of the futility of the plea alledged on our part for an adherence to our favourite Orders. In the latter of these communications, after having mentioned the release of several American vessels detained after 1. November, he adds:

"I should have no doubt been able to have announced the release, by one general decision, of every American vessel captured since that period, if the only enquiry were whether or not they had violated the Berlin and Milan Decrees. Unfortunately, however, the practices of late years render the question of property extremely difficult to be satisfactorily decided amidst false papers and false oaths."—"The Berlin and Milan Decrees have ceased to be executed on the high seas, and if the Orders in Council still continue to operate there, they surely are not supported by any principle of the law of retaliation, but must be considered as a simple and unqualified violation of our neutral and national rights."

Mr. Smith lost no time in communicating the information in question to our government:

'*Mr. J. S. Smith to the Marquis Wellesley.*

"My Lord, "Bentinck Street, July 23d, 1811.

"The letter which I have the honour to present to your Lordship, has been just received by me from Mr. Russell. So full and complete is this document, that I conceive it quite unnecessary to add any comments or remarks of my own. I shall, however, have much pleasure in furnishing any other explanations in my power, either verbal or written, that your Lordship may desire.

"Any doubts that may have existed here of the effectual repeal of the decrees of Berlin and Milan will now, I feel assured, be completely removed; and I feel equally confident, that this revocation of the French edicts will be immediately followed by that of the Orders in Council, which affect the neutral commerce of the United States. I need not assure your Lordship of the great satisfaction I shall have in communicating this event to my government."

Lord Wellesley did not choose either to call in question the information transmitted or to enter on any conference, but, with a view to farther delay, referred the whole to Mr. Foster, whom by this time our ministers had deemed it necessary to send out to America:

'*Marquis Wellesley to J. S. Smith, Esq.*

"Sir, "Foreign Office, August 8, 1811.

"Your letter of the 23d ultimo has been under the consideration of his Royal Highness the Prince Regent, and has received all the attention to which it is entitled.

"I am

"I am commanded by his Royal Highness to acquaint you, that he has thought fit to postpone the answer to your letter until advices which are hourly expected, from Mr. Foster, shall have been received."

'*Lord Wellesley to J. S. Smith, Esq.*

"Sir, "Foreign Office, August 14, 1811.

"Since the date of my last letter, I have the honour to inform you that I have received a letter from Mr. Foster, his Majesty's minister in America, by which it appears that he had actually commenced a negotiation with the government of the United States, respecting the British Orders in Council. His dispatches containing the particulars of the negotiation, have not yet reached me. Under these circumstances, I have transmitted a copy of your letter, together with its enclosure, to Mr. Foster, in order that those documents may receive full consideration in the progress of the discussions now depending in America."

No sooner did the American government receive a copy of these letters, than they transmitted them to Mr. Foster, and invited him to enter forthwith on the proposed negotiation:

'*Mr. Monroe to Mr. Foster.*

"Sir, "Department of State, October 17th, 1811.

"I have the honour to communicate to you a copy of two letters from the Chargé d'affaires of the United States at Paris, to their Charge d'affaires at London, and a copy of a correspondence of the latter with the Marquis of Wellesley on the subject. By this it will be seen that Mr. Smith was informed by the Marquis of Wellesley, that he should transmit to you a copy of the communication from Paris, that it might have full consideration in the discussion depending here.

"Although an immediate repeal was to have been expected from your government, on the receipt of this communication, if the new proof which it affords of the French repeal was satisfactory; yet it will be very agreeable to learn that you are now authorized to concur in an arrangement that will terminate both the Orders in Council and the Non-importation act. I have the honour to be, &c.

"JAS. MONROE."

The Americans were far from suspecting that, during the whole of the business, our cabinet had no intention of relinquishing the obnoxious Orders. It is really amusing to find Lord Wellesley professing, in the month of August, to believe that Mr. Foster was engaged in an endeavour to meet the wishes of the American government; when two months afterwards the business is advanced no further than to a query on the part of the Americans, whether Mr. Foster has as yet received the necessary authority. Lord Wellesley remained in office several months longer, without shewing any wish to criticise the negotiation on which he affected to lay so much stress; and is

lately as last April, the answer of our ministry to the suffering manufacturers of Birmingham implied that the govenrment had never seriously thought of rescinding the Orders in question. Necessity prescribed at last that which policy should long before have recommended. The repeal came, but it came ungraciously. How different would have been its effects, had our cabinet adopted the change six or eight months sooner! Those who are not yet convinced of the pacific wishes of America will do well to read the following extract of a letter from Mr. Monroe to Mr. Foster:

"Department of State, 26th July, 1811.

"It is in the power of the British government, at this time, to enable the President to set the Non-importation law aside, by rendering to the United States an act of justice.—If Great Britain will cease to violate their neutral rights by revoking her Orders in Council, on which event alone the President has the power, I am instructed to inform you, that he will, without delay, exercise it by terminating the operation of this law."

We have taken occasion, in our Number for August last, to explain a few of the convenient pretexts of which our ministers had no scruple to make use, for the purpose of rendering a strong measure palatable to the public. We shall now add a few observations on some diplomatic mysteries, in which our readers will not fail to trace the same laudable imitation of the Machiavelian policy of Bonaparte. Mr. Rose, junior, we have already seen, (M. R. August, p. 382.) was sent out on the singular plan of carrying an apology which it was never meant he should deliver. The next step, though here (we confess) the double dealing is not quite so clear, was to empower Mr. Erskine (see M. R. August, p. 382.) to treat by virtue of instructions which "prohibited in substance what they allowed in words." The third proceeding, in this extraordinary series, was the sending out of Mr. Jackson, (or, as some call him, Mr. *Copenhagen* Jackson,) who was certainly not the fittest of our envoys to employ, if we meant things to proceed amicably. It was perfectly evident that the person, who had been an instrument in measures connected with the seizure of a neutral navy in Europe, must of all others be least acceptable to a neutral nation across the Atlantic; and as he happened to meet in Mr. Smith, the American Secretary, a negociator of kindred passions, an explosion was not long to be avoided: but the American government did not delay to make amends for the vehemence of their secretary, by transmitting, as we have seen, explicit powers to Mr. Pinkney to settle matters in London. This was exactly what we ought to have wished; and the affront, if any existed, in the case of Mr. Jackson, was compensated

sated by the eagerness to adjust the difference at our own door:—but a speedy settlement, or indeed a speedy commencement of discussion, by no means suited the wish of our ministers. The delusive balance of trade in the year 1809 was uppermost in their calculations, and had bewildered the mind of greater men than Mr. Stephen. The mortifying discovery of non-payment from abroad had not yet been made; and we never doubted the assurance of a handsome profit on our exports. In short, the Orders in Council were now proclaimed to be an engine for transferring the commerce of the world to the shipping of Great Britain; and, under these delectable impressions, we had no other thought than that of maintaining, in all its energy, this wonderful system. At the same time, it was expedient to use smooth language towards America, and to prevent the two great parties in that republic from uniting against us. Mr. Canning had set the example of this hopeful course, and Lord Wellesley was not slow in following it. The repulse of Mr. Jackson was therefore regarded as fortunate, in affording us a plea for a farther delay of the promised treaty; and it is curious to see, from the correspondence, how Mr. Pinkney was allowed to flatter himself, month after month, with the expectation of the negotiation being cordially resumed:

'*Mr. Pinkney to Mr. Smith, American Secretary of State.*

"London, 21st March, 1810.

"On 2d January I had a conference with Marquis Wellesley, in the course of which I explained to him fully the grounds upon which I was instructed to request Mr. Jackson's immediate recall, and upon which the official intercourse between that minister and the American government had been suspended.

"Lord Wellesley's reception of what I said to him was *frank* and *friendly*: and I left him with a persuasion that we should have no cause to be dissatisfied with the final course of his government on the subjects of our conference."

Notwithstanding all this politeness, Lord Wellesley allowed Mr. Pinkney's letter to remain many weeks unanswered:

"Although I was aware that the answer to my letter would not be very hastily given, I certainly was not prepared to expect the delay which has actually occurred.

"Between the delivery of my letter and the receipt of the reply I had frequent conversations with Lord Wellesley, some of which were at his own request, and related altogether to the subject of my letter."—

"From the disposition evinced by Lord Wellesley, I was inclined to hope that it might be in my power to announce to you, by the return of the corvette, that a new envoy would be charged, as the successor of Mr. Jackson, with instructions adapted to the purpose of honourable accommodation.

"I recur[illegible]

"I recurred in subsequent conversations, as often as occasion presented itself, to the attack on the Chesapeake and to the Orders in Council. It soon appeared, however, that a new envoy would not, in the first instance, be sent out to replace Mr. Jackson. It finally became certain that no definite proposal would, for the present at least, be made to us through any channel."

It was not, however, advisable to make Mr. Pinkney aware of the length of time during which we thought of putting off the nomination of an envoy. The true diplomatic plan was to keep him in a state of expectation, and, above all, to make him think that Lord Wellesley was eager to promote the appointment. The delusion was carried so far, that Mr. Pinkney expected not only a plenipotentiary but a plenipotentiary of rank; and he thus writes to Mr. Smith:

"London, July 1st, 1810.

"I think I can undertake to assure you that no change has taken place in the opinion of Lord Wellesley that a minister plenipotentiary of rank should be sent to the United States. I am persuaded that the result will be perfectly satisfactory to the President."

"London, Aug. 14th, 1810.

"I am not yet able to say positively who the new minister will be. Lord ——— and some others are spoken of. Lord Wellesley has given me no other written information on the subject than is contained in his letter of the 22d ultimo, already communicated to you. His verbal information has been to the same effect, with this addition, that he retained his opinion (mentioned in my unofficial letter to you of the 4th of January last) that the minister to America ought to be a man of rank. As far as may be prudent, I shall not fail to do all in my power to expedite the appointment."

Another fortnight, however, elapsed without the nomination of the promised ambassador:

"*Mr. Pinkney to Mr. Smith.*

"Sir, "London, August 29, 1810.

"I dined yesterday with Lord Wellesley, and found that he had only returned to town in the morning. He still complained of indisposition; but *it certainly could not be considered as unfitting him for business.* In a short conversation before dinner he told me that he believed he should recommend to the King the appointment of a minister plenipotentiary to the United States, either this week or the next; that he had two persons in his eye, (both men of high rank) but that he could not with propriety name them to me at present."—

"You perceive that notwithstanding past promises nothing has yet been done; and that there is no security that we shall have any thing but promises. I am truly disgusted with this, and would, if I followed my own inclination, put a speedy end to it. It is better, however, to do nothing of an irritating nature."

Mr. Pinkney now began to understand the way in which he had been led on from time to time, and, in his subsequent letters,

ters, we find no allusion to the expected "man of rank." *Eight months more* were allowed to pass before ministers chose to dispatch an ambassador; and the "man of high rank" then proved to be Mr. Foster. Even then a negotiator would not have been sent, had not appearances been such as to threaten the approach of war from America; and, after all, Mr. Foster, when sent across the Atlantic, had no power to accede to the rescinding of the Orders in Council. His mission seemed confined to the composition of argumentative papers; and, much as we regret the result, it must be admitted that, at that time, after four years of wrangling, a resort to war appeared to be the only way of bringing our ministers to a point. It was not till the month of June last that our cabinet seriously determined on settling matters with America.

This mortifying picture of ministerial duplicity, though concealed from the British public, was in a great measure known in the United States: but it produced less sensation than might have been expected, in consequence of corresponding injustice on the part of other European states. Not only had Bonaparte defrauded and plundered the Americans, but his auxiliaries, the Danish privateers in the Baltic, had followed his example with such shameless audacity, that the Americans found it at last indispensable to send a special envoy to Copenhagen. Mr. Erving, the gentleman mentioned in the preceding article, having been intrusted with this mission, proceeded to the North, and made the following report of his reception:

"Copenhagen, June 23d, 1811.

"The evils which our commerce has suffered here, though very considerable, yet have not been quite so extensive as has been generally believed; and you will learn also with very particular pleasure that the depredations of the Danish privateers, have been discontinued since my arrival. I can state the results to be nearly thus:

"Captures in 1809 - - -	38
Condemnations in 1809 - - -	12
Captures in Norway in the year 1810 - -	36

Of which are pending in the high court 8, and not one has been finally condemned.

Captures in Holstein, Sleswick, and the Danish islands, in 1810 - - -	68
Condemned - - - -	22
Pending - - - -	6
Convoy cases, year 1810 - - -	18
Condemned - - - -	8
Pending - - - -	10
Total amount of captures in 1809 and 1810 - -	

Total condemnations, 42, of which 16 were vessels which broken the embargo or non-intercourse, or are otherwise not gen American cases.

Pending cases, including 10 convoy cases -	24

"The

"There have been tried in the lower prize court of this place, and acquitted without delay, two or three, and one of them with damages against the captors, being the first case in which damages have been given at Copenhagen. Finally, of the 14 cases (not convoy cases) which were pending before the high court on my arrival, four have been acquitted; and though the privateersmen and all concerned with them (and the ramifications of their business are immense) have made every effort to bring on condemnations, yet the tribunal, otherwise perhaps well disposed to proceed, has been steadily held back by the government.

"I have had several interviews with Mr. de Rosenkrantz. Yesterday he told me very explicitly, that against the definitive decisions of the high court I must not hope for any redress; he trusted that for the future we should not have any cause to complain, but for the past there was no remedy."

Such are the depredations which await the unprotected neutral in a season of general commotion; depredations which, whether committed by French, Danes, or English, are fit only for the meridian of Algiers. Let us relieve ourselves from the disgust excited by such humiliating practices, in contemplating a memorable instance of active benevolence on the part of an individual. We find it recorded in Mr. Erving's letter:

"I cannot close this letter without acknowledging the very great services of Mr. Isaachson, our consul at Christiansand; you will observe, Sir, in the lists which I shall send to you, that of thirty-six vessels carried into the ports of Norway in the year 1810, only four were condemned in the inferior courts of that district; this has been wholly owing to the unwearied exertions of Mr. Isaachson. He found our people in the most distressed situation; entirely friendless, in the hands of, surrounded by, and ready to be sacrificed to the rapacity of, the privateersmen and their connections; he volunteered in their service; he boldly opposed himself to the host of their oppressors; he made each man's cause his own; he provided for every man's wants; in short, his intrepidity and independence, and disinterestedness of character, his constant zeal and industry, saved them from ruin, and with gratitude very honourable to themselves, they never cease to praise him.'

It remains that we make a few additional observations on the book which has supplied the above extracts. Though useful by presenting much in a small compass, it is put together in so odd a manner as to deserve scarcely any other title than that of a political medley. The numeration of the pages is altered *four times*; which, together with the head-titles of *Appendix*, and the signatures of *Vols. i. ii.* and *iii.*, shews that the whole is made up of detached pieces from some other publication; and unluckily the perplexity thus caused is not sufficiently remedied by a full table of contents. In so miscellaneous a collection, instead of assigning only a few lines by way of index

to

to thirty or forty pages, every document of consequence should have been specifically pointed out. The value of the compilation is farther lessened by the admission of some papers of doubtful authenticity, such as the pretended confidential letter of Champagny in October 1810, and Bonaparte's alledged speech in March 1811 to the merchants of Paris. The public are now tolerably well satisfied of the character of these papers; and the insertion of them among authentic documents, like the appearance of a lady of frail morals in a modest circle, has a tendency to cast a shade over the reputation of the whole.

ART. IX. *Rejected Addresses;* or, The New *Theatrum Poetarum.* 12mo. 4s. 6d. Boards. Miller, Bow-street. 1812.

THAT species of humour which consists in imitating the style of well-known writers, and in attributing compositions to them which they might have produced, has not been unfrequent in England: but the difficulty of abstaining from caricature in these attempts, and at the same time the necessity of heightening the usual manner of the author with a delicate degree of exaggeration, have proved obstacles to the general success of such endeavours. At present, we do not recollect above four or five instances in which this kind of *jeu d'esprit* has been popular;—especially if we confine ourselves to more modern times. Beginning with the celebrated pamphlet of "*Anticipation,*" in which Mr. Tickell so happily foretold some of the speeches of our greatest orators, we can reckon only five eminently successful productions of the nature in question:—viz. "*Anticipation;*" the "*Probationary Odes;*" "*The Rolliad;*" parts of "*The Anti-jacobin Newspaper;*" and the "*Rejected Addresses.*"

Those of our readers, who are not yet thoroughly acquainted with the merits of the little volume before us, will be equally surprized and pleased when they discover the justice of the classification which we have made above, and find that the last in our list of humorous imitations thoroughly deserves to be ranked with its predecessors. That such readers may immediately be enabled to adopt a very general opinion, we shall not delay their amusement by any superfluous remarks of our own: but, after having briefly recorded the origin and design of the publication, we shall proceed to extract rather copious passages, illustrative of the great versatility of talent with which many of our more distinguished versifiers are here imitated.

A prize for poetical contention having been proposed in the address to be spoken at the opening of Drury-lane new Theatre, the lucky idea of publishing a collection of imaginary 'Rejected

cted Addresses,' and of attributing them to popular names, oc-
urred to the present author *. The initials of the supposed *Ad-
essers* are subjoined to the titles of their respective poems: but,
nce without this aid the extraordinary spirit and fidelity of the
itation would, in every case, have betrayed the original intended,
e see no impropriety in our giving the names at full length.

The first address in the volume is ascribed to W. T. Fitzge-
ld, Esq.; the well-known loyalty and patriotism of whose poe-
al effusions, and indeed every other characteristic of his
yle, (especially that of the hecatomb of sense offered on the
gle altar of sound,) are most happily hit off. Let the fol-
wing specimens speak for themselves:

'Hail glorious edifice! stupendous work!
God bless the Regent, and the Duke of York!'

'Gallia's stern despot shall in vain advance
From Paris, the metropolis of France;
By this day month the monster shall not gain
A foot of land in Portugal or Spain.
See Wellington in Salamanca's field
Forces his favourite General to yield,
Breaks through his lines, and leaves his boasted Marmont
Expiring on the plain without an arm on:
Madrid he enters at the cannon's mouth,
And then the villages still further south.
Base Buonaparte, filled with deadly ire,
Sets one by one our playhouses on fire:
Some years ago he pounced with deadly glee on
The Opera House, then burnt down the Pantheon;'—

gain,

'Who burnt (confound his soul!) the houses twain
Of Covent Garden and of Drury Lane?
Who, while the British squadron lay off Cork,
(God bless the Regent and the Duke of York,)
With a foul earthquake ravaged the Caraccas,
And raised the price of dry goods and tobaccos?
Who makes the quartern loaf and Luddites rise?
Who fills the butchers' shops with large blue flies?
Who thought in flames St. James's court to pinch?
Who burnt the wardrobe of poor Lady Finch?
Why he, who, forging for this isle a yoke,
Reminds me of a line I lately spoke,
"The tree of freedom is the British oak."

'Bless every man possessed of aught to give;
Long may Long Tilney Wellesley Long Pole live;

* Or, rather, as we understand, authors;—two gentlemen of the name
mith, (of the profession of the law, in the city,) who had before suc-
ded in some anonymous songs, and minor writings for the stage.

God bless the army, bless their coats of scarlet,
God bless the navy, bless the Princess Charlotte,
God bless the guards, tho' worsted Gallia scoff,
God bless their pig-tails, though they're now cut off;
And Oh, in Downing-street should Old Nick revel,
England's prime minister, then bless the Devil!'

'The Baby's Debut' follows: it is spoken in the charact of Nancy Lake, a girl eight years of age; who is drawn the stage in a child's chaise by her uncle's porter, Sam Hughes. We have room only for one short extract, whi needs not be attributed to Mr. W. Wordsworth. The vac simplicity of the thoughts, and the perverse silliness of *courti* the use of vulgar and monosyllabic words in poetry, are se evident proofs of authenticity:

'What a large floor, 'tis like a town!
The carpet, when they lay it down,
Won't hide it, I'll be bound;
And there's a row of lamps, my eye!
How they do blaze! I wonder why
They keep them on the ground.'

The author might have chosen his motto to this address fr Cowper;

"A *little address*
May be followed, perhaps, by *a smile:*"

but he may have done better in adopting the words of Cu berland, used on a similar subject:

"Nature's true ideot I prefer to thee."

'*Cui Bono?*' by Lord Byron, is a most living imitation "Childe Harold." The verses, in the first place, are v good; and the flow of Spenser's stanza, as written by Lord is entirely preserved. The boldness and occasional quaintn of the noble author's phraseology are equally well imitat and that satiety of pleasure, and wearisomeness of existe that almost absorbing sensation of the "dull, stale, and unp fitable" in life, which pervade his Lordship's melancholy strong effort of genius, are here re-echoed and ridiculed in unrivalled manner:

'Sated with home, of wife, of children tired,
The restless soul is driven abroad to roam;
Sated abroad, all seen, yet nought admired,
The restless soul is driven to ramble home;
Sated with both, beneath new Drury's Dome
The fiend Ennui awhile consents to pine,
There growls, and curses, like a deadly Gnome,
Scorning to view fantastic Columbine,
Viewing with scorn and hate the nonsense of the Nine.

'Ye reckless dupes, who hither wend your way,
To gaze on dupes who meet an equal doom,
Pursuing pastimes glittering to betray,
Like falling stars in life's eternal gloom,
What seek ye here? Joy's evanescent bloom?
Woe's me! the brightest wreaths she ever gave
Are but as flowers that decorate a tomb,
Man's heart, the mournful urn o'er which they wave,
Is sacred to despair, its pedestal the grave.

'Has life so little store of real woes,
That here ye wend to taste fictitious grief?
Or is it that from truth such anguish flows
Ye court the lying drama for relief?
Long shall ye find the pang, the respite brief,
Or if one tolerable page appears
In folly's volume, 'tis the actor's leaf,
Who dries his own by drawing other's tears,
And raising present mirth, makes glad his future years.'

We must subjoin one other brief specimen, which is as ludicrously solemn as any thing that we recollect.

'Shakespeare, how true thine adage, "fair is foul!"
To him whose soul is with fruition fraught,
The song of Braham is an Irish howl,
Thinking is but an idle waste of thought,
And nought is every thing, and every thing is nought!'

A prose address by W. Cobbett succeeds. It is spoken in the character of a Hampshire farmer who has rarely visited the theatres, and who declares his intention of doing so as rarely in future, until 'that abominable custom of taking money at the doors is discontinued.' He praises the want of ornament in the exterior of the theatre, which, he reminds the audience, is of truly English manufacture, 'a plain, homely, honest, industrious, wholesome, *brown brick playhouse*.' He says to that 'most thinking people,' whom he addresses, 'you might have sweltered till doomsday in that place with the Greek name,' (the Lyceum) 'and neither Lord Castlereagh, Mr. Canning, nor the Marquis Wellesley, would have turned a trowel to help you out! Remember that. Never forget that. Read it to your children, and to your children's children.' He rejoices to be informed, although he does not vouch for it, that Macbeth and Lady Macbeth are no longer to have 'more gold and silver plaistered over their doublets than would have kept an honest family in butchers' meat and flannel from year's end to year's end:' but that Lady M. is to appear 'in a plain quilted petticoat,' and Macbeth 'in a pair of black calamanco breeches. Not *Sal*amanca; no, nor Talavera neither, my most noble Marquis; but plain, honest, black calamanco, stuff breeches.'

In 'The Living Lustres,' by Thomas (*Anacreon*) Moore, the poet recommends a row of female *beauties* instead of *lamps* to light the theatre. This is perhaps not so perfectly good an imitation as most of the others, but the following stanza will be recognized and applauded by the author's warmest admirers:

'And dear is the Emerald Isle of the Ocean,
Whose daughters are fair as the foam of the wave;
Whose sons, unaccustomed to rebel commotion,
Tho' joyous are sober, tho' peaceful are brave!'

'The Rebuilding,' by Robert Southey, must (we think) greatly please that original poet. It may be considered as a new edition of the curse of Kehama, abridged, with very slight variations:

'I am a blessed Glendoveer;
'Tis mine to speak and yours to hear.
— — — — — — —
Midnight, yet not a nose
From Tower-hill to Piccadilly snored!
Midnight, yet not a nose
From Indra drew the essence of repose.
See with what crimson fury,
By Indra fann'd the god of fire ascends the walls of Drury;
The tops of houses, blue with lead,
Bend beneath the landlord's tread;
Master and 'prentice, serving man and lord,
Nailor and taylor,
Grazier and brazier,
Thro' streets and alleys pour'd,
All, all abroad to gaze,
And wonder at the blaze.
Thick calf, fat foot, and slim knee,
Mounted on roof and chimney,
The mighty roast, the mighty stew
To see;
As if the dismal view
Were but to them a Brentford jubilee.'

Again,

'Now come the men of fire to quench the fires,
To Russel-street, see Globe and Atlas flock,
Hope gallops first and second Rock;
On flying heel,
See Hand in Hand
O'ertake the band,
View with what glowing wheel
He nicks
Phœnix;
While Albion scampers from Bridge-street, Blackfriars, Drury

Drury Lane! Drury Lane!
Drury Lane! Drury Lane!
They shout and they hollow again and again.
All, all in vain!
Water turns steam;
Each blazing beam
Hisses defiance to the eddying spout;
It seems but too plain that nothing can put it out;
Drury Lane! Drury Lane!
See Drury Lane expires!'

Apollo, or Surya, intitled '*the beaming one*,' and Harlequin, addressed as follows,

—— 'Oh brown of slipper, as of hat!'

must surely have been suggested by the author of the "Curse," the friend of George Withers, himself.

'Drury's Dirge,' by Laura Matilda, is well executed, but out of time and place. This is stepping aside for the worthy purpose of "thrice slaying the slain." The existence of the Della Cruscans is only to be remembered in their epitaph. As Curl and his crew would have gone out like a stinking candle, unless they had been preserved in all their bad odour by the Dunciad, so would the nameless sentimentalists in question have expired, had they not been consecrated to eternal ridicule in the Baviad and Mæviad: but one such shrine is enough for worthlessness.

'The Tale of Drury Lane,' by Walter Scott, Esq., is not uniformly successful: but a part of it is Marmion himself. For instance, the topography of London, and the names, and dresses, and engines of the firemen, are as minute and as full of repetition (that soul of ballad-writing) as propriety required: but the pervading force and rapidity of Scott's genius are wanting in the poetry. Must we say

"Within that circle none dares tread but he?"

Assuredly, they are only the obvious faults of this writer which are here burlesqued:—but who is Aristarchus enough to frown at the following attempt of 'Higginbottom' to rescue 'Muggins?'

'Did none attempt, before he fell,
To succour one they lov'd so well?
Yes, Higginbottom did aspire,
(His fireman's soul was all on fire,)
His brother chief to save;
But ah! his reckless generous ire
Serv'd but to share his grave!
Mid blazing beams and scalding streams,
Thro' fire and smoke he dauntless broke,
Where Muggins broke before.

But sulphury stench and boiling drench
Destroying sight o'erwhelmed him quite,
He sunk to rise no more.
Still o'er his head, while Fate he braved,
His whizzing water-pipe he waived;
"Whitford and Mitford ply your pumps,
"You Clutterbuck, come stir your stumps,
"Why are you in such doleful dumps!
"A fireman and afraid of bumps!
"What are they fear'd on, fools, 'od rot 'em,"
Were the last words of Higginbottom.'

'A Prologue by Johnson's Ghost,' which is the next in succession, contains some passages in which the abstract terms and the *sesquipedalia verba* of the great moralist are justly though ludicrously represented: but, on the whole, the copy is overcharged, and it is entirely out of date.

'The beautiful Incendiary, by the Hon. W. S.' meaning Mr. Spencer*, is, in parts, very fortunate; the opening in particular:

'Sobriety cease to be sober,
Cease, Labour, to dig and to delve;
All hail to this tenth of October,
One thousand eight hundred and twelve.'

'Fire and Ale,' by M. G. Lewis, Esq., revives the half-forgotten extravagancies of "The Tales of Wonder," and displays as much fancy as the wildest attempts of the original:

'Look! look! 'tis the ale king! so stately and starch,
Whose votaries scorn to be sober;
He pops from his vat, like a cedar or torch;
Brown stout is his doublet, he hops in his march,
And froths at the mouth in October.

'His spear is a spigot, his shield is a bung,' &c. &c.

The allusion to the restorer of Old Drury in this passage is good-humoured and unobjectionable.

'Play House Musings,' by S. T. Coleridge, is one of the best burlesques that we ever had the pleasure of reading. The mournful yet familiar sentimentality of these 'Musings' opens an exquisite vein of humour:

'My pensive public, wherefore look you sad?
I had a grandmother, she kept a donkey
To carry to the mart her crockery ware,
And when that donkey look'd me in the face,
His face was sad! and you are sad, my public!

* This imitation has been supposed to be intended for Mr. Skeffington, instead of Mr. Spencer: but in both cases the title *honourable* is incorrect.

'Joy should be yours: this tenth day of October
Again assembles us in Drury Lane.
Long wept my eye to see the timber planks
That hid our ruins; many a day I cried
Ah me! I fear they never will rebuild it!
Till on one eve, one joyful Monday eve,
As along Charles Street I prepar'd to walk,
Just at the corner, by the pastry cook's,
I heard a trowel tick against a brick.
I look'd me up, and strait a parapet,
Uprose at least seven inches o'er the planks.
Joy to thee, Drury! to myself I said,
He of Blackfriars Road who hymn'd thy downfal
In loud hosannahs, and who prophecied
That flames like those from prostrate Solyma
Would scorch the hand that ventur'd to rebuild thee,
Has proved a lying prophet.'—

'Oh! 'twas a goodly sound to hear the people
Who watch'd the work, express their various thoughts!
While some believed it never would be finish'd,
Some on the contrary believed it would.

'I've heard our front that faces Drury Lane,
Much criticised; they say 'tis vulgar brick work,
A mimic manufactory of floor cloth.
One of the morning papers wish'd that front
Cemented like the front in Brydges Street?
As it now looks they call it Wyatt's Mermaid,
A handsome woman with a fish's tail.'

The conclusion is indeed "*to the life:*"

'Amid the freaks that modern fashion sanctions,
It grieves me much to see live animals
Brought on the stage. Grimaldi has his rabbit,
Laurent his cat, and Bradbury his pig;
Fie on such tricks! Johnson, the machinist
Of former Drury, imitated life
Quite to the life. The elephant in Blue Beard,
Stuff'd by his hand, wound round his lithe proboscis
As spruce as he who roar'd in Padmanaba.

'Nought born on earth should die. On hackney stands
I reverence the coachman who cries "Gee,"
And spares the lash. When I behold a spider
Prey on a fly, a magpie on a worm,
Or view a butcher with horn-handled knife,
Slaughter a tender lamb as dead as mutton,
Indeed, indeed, I'm very, very sick!

[*Exit hastily.*]'

Drury Lane Hustings,' by 'A Pic NicPoet,' is a song of very little merit; and who is the author intended, we are ignorant.

'Architectural Atoms,' by Dr. Busby, contain an imitation of an inedited work; and, not having attended the Doctor's recitations, we have no means of appreciating the similarity: but we perceive a strong likeness of Dr. Darwin in several passages, whether that resemblance be intentional or accidental. Perhaps, indeed, the imitation may *kill two birds with one stone*;— and that this must often be the case, a very superficial acquaintance with modern poetry will sufficiently evince. Who can precisely distinguish between some compositions of Anacreon Moore, Lord Strangford, and Mr. Spencer? Who exactly knows where Wordsworth's childishness ends, and Southey's puerility begins? Who can indisputably mark the line of circumvallation, which shuts out Scott in his feebler moments from Constance of Castile, * from the Minstrels of Acre, † from Roncevalles, ‡ from Wallace, § from Christina? ‖

"——*facies non omnibus una*
"*Nec diversa tamen, qualis decet esse sororum.*"

'The Theatrical Alarm Bell,' by the editor of the Morning Post, exhibits some good burlesque on outrageous loyalty; and on that irrational idea, which seems to engross the minds of so many party-men, that those who oppose *them* must necessarily be wicked as well as foolish.

'An Address without a Phœnix, by S. T. P.', compared with what is said [about the introduction of a Phœnix into such compositions] in the preface, seems to have been written by the author, or some of his friends. It is evidently serious, and perhaps as evidently shews the truth of the old saying, "*non omnia possumus omnes.*" The humour of S. T. P., we are greatly inclined to think, exceeds his gravity. However this may be, the address in question, if it must have a model, resembles a cento from Pope and our other genuine poets, more than any modern original. '*Up leap'd* the Muses,' indeed, is too close and literal a translation of the ἀνόρουσεν of Homer. '*Up rose* the King of men *with speed*' has more dignity.

The succeeding addresses by Momus Medlar, Esq. ¶ are very inferior to the imitations. There is little human merit in a mere horse-laugh; and yet it is impossible to be so "stubborn as to resist all tendency to laughter," (according to Johnson's charge against Swift,) when we read such a chorus as the *following*,

* By Sotheby. † Anonymous. ‡ By F. T. Balfour.
§ By Miss Holford. ‖ By Miss Mitford.

¶ From this *nom de guerre*, we conclude one or both of these authors to have written that great dramatic work intitled "The Highgate Tunnell," and some others of a similar nature.

lowing, in the burlesque on the play of *The Stranger*, who is introduced

> 'With his sentimentalibus lachrymæ roar'em,
> And pathos and bathos delightful to see,
> And chop and change ribs a-la-mode Germanorum,
> And high diddle ho diddle, pop tweedle dee.'

'The Theatre,' by the Rev. G. Crabbe, does ample justice to the subject and the author. It contains some lines, indeed, which again remind us of Dr. Darwin instead of their supposed writer: but the story of the loss of Pat Jennings's hat, which drops from the upper into the lower gallery, for plain vulgar flatness of idea and expression, is unequalled even by the choicest specimens in the "Borough," or the "Tales." Why will an author, who abounds in beautiful passages, voluntarily degrade his poetical character, by a false estimate of the merit of being quite homespun and *natural*, or by the most culpable carelessness of style?—either, in short, by some absurd theory, or by the idlest practice? Why destroy all the delusion, all the *beau ideal* of poetry, by mixing with some of its most charming efforts such a tame tissue of low thoughts and prosaic expressions? Why be content to lose the world for a poor-house?

> 'Pat Jennings in the upper gallery sat,
> But leaning forward, Jennings lost his hat;
> Down from the gallery the beaver flew,
> And spurn'd the one to settle in the two.
> How shall he act? Pay at the gallery door
> Two shillings for what cost when new but four?
> Now, while his fears anticipate a thief,
> John Mullins whispers, take my handkerchief.
> Thank you, cries Pat, but one won't make a line;
> Take mine, cried Wilson, and cried Stokes, take mine.
> A motley cable soon Pat Jennings ties,
> Where Spital-fields with real India vies,
> Like Iris' bow, down darts the painted hue,
> Starr'd, striped, and spotted, yellow, red, and blue,
> Old calico, torn silk, and muslin new;
> George Green below, with palpitating hand,
> Loops the last 'kerchief to the beaver's band;
> Up soars the prize; the youth, with joy unfeign'd,
> Regain'd the felt, and felt what he regain'd,
> While to the applauding galleries grateful Pat
> Made a low bow, and touch'd the ransom'd hat.'

The concluding example of wanton humour (if it can so be called) is attributed to G. Colman the Younger: but 'Punch's Apotheosis' is very unworthy of that humourist, excepting in his idlest and worst manner. It is therefore much more appro-

priately

priately given to Mr. T. H. (we presume, Mr. Theodore Hook,) in the second edition of the 'Rejected Addresses:'—this probably was suggested by the alteration of the hero in the Dunciad.

We now take our leave of this pleasing publication; which may not only be said to have increased "the stock of harmless gaiety," but which, if rightly taken, is capable of producing serious improvement in our literature. Yet we are not sanguine as to its effecting any part of what it ought to effect; because we fear that the self-love of authorship will scarcely suffer even the poet, whose bad taste has received the best tempered admonition in this burlesque, to profit by the hint, and, "flinging away the *worser* part" of himself,

"To live more nobly with the purer half."

A publication which professes to supply us with some of the *real* Rejected Addresses has just appeared.

ART. X. *Sermons preached on public Occasions;* with Notes, and an Appendix, on various important Subjects. By R. Valpy, D.D. F.A.S. 8vo. 2 Vols. About 350. pp. in each Vol. 18s. Boards. Longman and Co. 1811.

OUR duty very often requires us to announce volumes of sermons, but rarely permits us to speak highly in commendation of them. A case of the latter kind, however, is now before us, for it cannot be denied that as a preacher Dr. Valpy ranks in the first class; that he unites the rare qualities of learning, judgment, and liberality; and that his discourses are replete with the *dulcia* of composition. It is not now for the first time, indeed, that we bear testimony to his merits. When the Doctor first appeared before the public as a clergyman, in a charity-sermon delivered at Bury, Suffolk, October 17, 1779, (No. 1. in Vol. i.) we briefly sketched the merits of the preacher, though he then chose to remain anonymous *. In 1794 he published two assize-sermons, (Nos. 2. and 3.) to which he affixed his name, and which we commended † as "bearing strong marks of brilliant talents and sound erudition." Our praise, however, on that occasion, was not altogether unqualified; and we are pleased to find that this candid writer, so far from being offended by our strictures, has in this republication omitted the passages to which we then objected. The sermon on the consecration of the colors of the Reading Association, preached August 13, 1798, being No. 5. in this series, was reviewed by us in Vol. xxviii. N. S. p. 236.; and that which was delivered in behalf of the Humane Society, (No. 6.)

* See Rev. Vol. lxiv. p. 80. † See M. R. Vol. xiii. N.S. p. 212.

in

1 Vol. xl. N. S. p. 335. The Fast Sermon (No. 4.), preached March 7, 1797, and a discourse recommendatory of the Reading Dispensary, and of similar institutions in other places (No. 7.), seem to have been overlooked by us, at the periods of their riginal appearance. The last sermon in this collection, which ras preached at Reading in April 1809, and afterward in several other places for the British and Foreign Bible-Society, ow appears in print (we believe) for the first time; and, as he subject of it has lately excited considerable attention, the entiments of so enlightened a scholar as Dr. Valpy will be llowed to require a full statement and examination. Before, owever, we enter on this office, it will be necessary to turn ack to the author's preface, in which he speaks of himself oth as a preacher and an annotator. After having adverted o the several discourses which compose this collection, and tated that they were published in consequence of the request f the congregations before which they were preached, he roceeds to apologise for the notes, as well as for the appended lissertations which occupy the whole of the second volume; nd to state, moreover, the motives by which he has been ctuated:

'Observations of a critical, historical and political nature, which were inadmissible in the sermons, have been subjoined in the form of notes. Some of these were of such magnitude, that it was thought necessary to consign them to an appendix. In these I have sometimes thought myself called upon by a sense of duty to the interests of my King, my country, and my church, to oppose the opinions and measures of men, whose motives I respect, and whose character I admire. If I have mistaken one fact, or made one false conclusion, I am ready to correct the one, and retract the other. The cause of patriotism, of religion, and of truth, is the sole object of these observations. If they suggest one salutary regulation, my purpose is completely fulfilled.

'I have endeavoured to avoid personal allusions. Of those, whose opinions I controvert, the names are seldom expressed. The public are interested only in the confirmation or confutation of their sentiments. They themselves cannot be deceived in the quotation or application of their arguments. The field of defence is open to them. If any expression should unfortunately wound the feelings of any individual, "Let my disclaiming from a purposed evil free me in his most generous thoughts;" let it be expunged.

'To promote the public welfare is the object of this work. If it is successful, the end is attained: if not, it is useless to persevere. In either case, the reader may be assured that this is the last time that I appear in the field of polemical or political discussion, as a writer or as a speaker. The remainder of my days shall be devoted to the discharge of professional and religious duties. If I cannot procure, I will *pray for the peace of Jerusalem.*"

"Hic cestus artemque repono."

It is impossible not to be pleased with the ingenuous and manly style of this declaration; and we sincerely wish that all who address the public were guided by similar views.

The British and Foreign Bible-Society has been warmly patronized on the one hand, and as furiously attacked on the other; and the controversy, which this liberal, extensive, and truly Christian institution has occasioned in a protestant country, is one of the most astonishing phænomena in this age of anomalies. It is almost past belief that learned members of our Established Church, which professes to erect itself on the authority of the Scriptures, and which maintains in its very articles that "these (Scriptures) contain all things necessary to salvation," should express the smallest alarm at the proposal of having the Sacred Books widely distributed, without note or comment. A more glaring instance of indiscretion it is hardly possible to produce; for the very position laid down by the opponents of the Bible Society involves a much severer reflection on the church whose advocates they profess to be, than it is in the power of all the sectaries in the empire to inflict. On this occasion, therefore, it may be said that the greatest enemies of the Established Church are "those of her own household." We are happy to find that Dr. Valpy does not belong to this corps of affected alarmists; but that, in his usual tone of good sense, he asks, 'can an apprehension be seriously expressed that the interests of the Church of England will suffer by the distribution of the word of God?' Persuaded that his own church cannot be injured, and that the world at large must be benefited, by the generous and extended exertions of the Bible-Society, the preacher first shews 'the want of the word of God, which was felt by a great part of the world before the origin of the Society,' and then details, in the second division of his discourse, 'the proceedings of the Society, the benefits which have resulted from them, and the objects which they have still in view to extend the kingdom of God;' concluding with an appeal to the hearts of his audience on solliciting their aid in behalf of this *labor of love.* Adverting to the period in which this Society was instituted, Dr. Valpy makes these reflections:

'From the most discordant sounds the power of God can draw forth melody: from the wildest passions of men the wisdom of God can derive benevolence and love. In the midst of the fiercest tempest, the gentle gale of health and refreshment may, by the goodness of God, be made to blow. Hence, at the very time when empires were dismembered, when kingdoms were rent asunder, when every trace of civilization was worn away by the depredations of barbarity, when even the waves of the sea were tinged with blood;—at that very time—mark the wonderful ways, and adore the dispensations of Providence; at that very time a Society was formed in the metropolis of this country,

country, which was intended, in the great purposes of Mercy, to lead the world from darkness to light, from misery to comfort, from sorrow to joy, from the fears of temporal death to the hopes of eternal life. At the first dawn of the Gospel, a star arose in the East, to dispense the glad tidings of salvation to the western world; now a light has risen in the West, designed by the God of mercy to spread the doctrine of Jesus Christ to the remotest nations, and to accelerate the blessed time, when *the earth shall be full of the knowledge of the Lord, as the waters cover the sea.*'

So far from having any fears respecting the operation of this Society, Dr. V. contemplates its object and effects with perfect satisfaction:

'Their object is to distribute, at an expence of not more than half the common price, the Old and New Testament, in every language of the civilized world. Their principles are those of pure Christianity, without bias to any particular sect or distinction. Hence the Bible is printed without notes or comment, because they might be said to convey sentiments, and inculcate the tenets of some particular church. By this impartial universality, all descriptions of Christians are equally interested in promoting the design of the Society, because they all ground their belief on the Scriptures. One very important end has been attained by this expansion of general interest. The Society has diffused the principles of universal benevolence. It has brought all parties together; and mutual communication and interchange of sentiments, have proved that the real difference between them is far from being irreconcileable. Not only individual, but national animosities have been softened, and perhaps it is not too much to hope that they may be finally healed. It is a most cheering sight to see in the London Committee, Britons and foreigners, members of the Church of England and of other communions brought together, and joined like *brethren dwelling together in unity.* Thus may the Society be represented, in the words of our great Poet, as "a hoop of gold, to bind *the nations* in.'

The extensive range of the Society's charity is thus briefly expressed:

'Although the Society is yet in its infancy, its proceedings have already been marked by the most important consequences. The sphere of its exertions, though confined to a period of less than five years, has been extended,—North and South, from Iceland and Lapland to the Cape of Good Hope and Van Diemen's Land;—East and West, from Hindostan and the Caspian Sea to the River Plata and great Lakes of North America.'

According to the last or Eighth Report, the exertions of this Society have been truly surprising. Since the period of its institution in 1804, it has distributed 327,210 Bibles and Testaments, exclusively of those which have been circulated abroad to a very large amount. By the "comprehensive libe-

rality"

rality" of its plan. all churches and sects seem to be united in one grand object, viz. the promotion of the knowlege of those sacred records to which all Christians appeal in justification of their respective systems of faith. When, therefore, the members of one particular church raise objections to this "comprehensive liberality," or rather to the strict justice and absolute impartiality of its proceedings, and contend that another book (especially in South Britain,) ought to be given with the Bible, what is the unavoidable inference to be drawn from such an intimation? An ingenious professor may chop logic as long as he pleases on this subject, but the more he displays his zeal the worse he makes his cause. Dr. Marsh has placed himself between the horns of a dilemma. He has written a libel either against the Bible, or against the Book of Common Prayer. Dr. Valpy has taken a better course, and defends this Society without expressing so indiscreet a fear as the Margaret Professor has betrayed, that, by the mere circulation of the Bible, the Establishment to which he belongs can be in the least degree endangered.

Besides the long notes which are subjoined at the bottom of the page in the first volume, the Appendix, which occupies the whole of the second volume, contains other notes, or rather essays, elicited by the principles maintained in the sermons. One of these is intitled *On the Interests of the Church of England*, intended as a continuation of remarks made in a note to the Bible-Society-sermon. This essay commences and closes with declarations of Dr. Valpy's cordial approbation of and disinterested attachment to the Church to which he belongs; and, being most sincerely convinced that 'of all religious systems which have been established on the principles of the Gospel, none can be compared to the Church of England,' he rejoices in the exertions of the Bible-Society as a sure mode of increasing its strength. While, however, this learned advocate for the Established Church declares his attachment to it, he does not contemplate it as a perfect system. In some respects, he thinks that it is capable of improvement; and he professes a wish that proper measures could be adopted for checking religious dissention, and drawing sectaries into its bosom. He is thoroughly sensible of the operation of the present system of ecclesiastical patronage, in bringing many clergymen into the Church who are not qualified to do credit to their profession, and *to feed the flock of Christ.* Thus openly does he speak his mind:

'The highest dignities in the church should be bestowed on those who by precept and example, by their theological learning and practical piety, by their faith and their works, have contributed to extend

extend the kingdom of God and the salvation of mankind. These are the shining lights, who should be commissioned by the sovereign authority in the state to enlighten the world, to dispel the mists of doubt, to clear the clouds of scepticism, to spread the bright effulgence of Revelation before the wanderer benighted in the gloom of ignorance. In the selection of these, neither private favour nor public interest should be permitted to operate. Ecclesiastical patronage should never be subservient to parliamentary influence. Connections with the great by birth or domestic habits should not be an introduction to preferment; still less should services of a civil or political nature be rewarded by ecclesiastical dignities.'

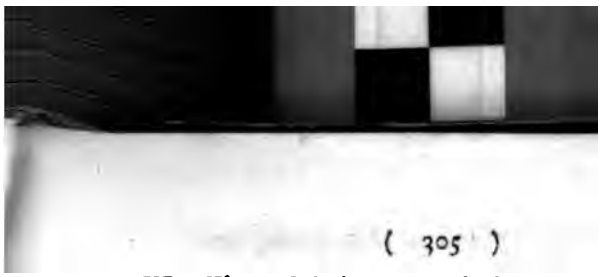
What ought to be the state of things, in order to give full effect to the Gospel in the hands of its appointed ministers, is very evident: but it is equally evident that the system, in actual practice, as to the appointment to church livings, is exactly that which Dr. V. says ought not to take place; and therefore he should make some allowances for Dissenters, and should not have adopted the untenable principle of Soame Jenyns "that, as members of the community, they are bound in duty to profess that religion and to practise that mode of worship which the laws of the community enjoin, provided they find nothing in them positively evil." With the leading tenet of our protestant sectaries, Dr. V. appears not to be acquainted. They deny that they are bound to profess any religion *merely because it is sanctioned by law*; and the Doctor is incorrect, we apprehend, when he states it as a fact that some of the most reflecting and conscientious among the regular Dissenters allow the necessity of an ecclesiastical establishment in a state. On the contrary, they object to the fashionable phrase, *Church and State*, and think that civil governors have no right to interfere in matters of conscience otherwise than to extend equal protection to persons of all religious persuasions. As no alterations are likely to be made in the Established Church, it is best to leave each party to its own opinions, and to inculcate on all the display of a Christian spirit.

The other papers in the Appendix are intitled, On the Law of the Twelve Tables respecting Debtors; — On the Causes which must prevent the Establishment of a Republic in France; — On the Catholic Question; — The Practice of Liberal Piety vindicated (by the late Dr. Butt, an anti-calvinistic effusion which, though in defence of Dr. V., is written in a style of supercilious smartness which we should suppose he could not approve); — Rivalry of France; — On the Prophecies relating to the Fall of Rome; — On the Disposition of the French Government to Peace; — Deeds without a Name; — Defence of the Country; — and On a State of Insensibility in

in suspended Animation. Had we time and space, we should probably be induced to enter into an examination of these essays: we should perhaps do more than express our surprise that a man of Dr. V.'s perspicacity could accede to the vulgar interpretation of certain prophecies by which protestant churches make them point to the Church of Rome; and that he could give credit to so apocryphal a publication as the *Secret History of the Court and Cabinet of St. Cloud:* — but, since our limits are circumscribed, we must confine ourselves to Dr. Valpy's discussion of the Catholic Question. Here he manifests those enlarged views, and those liberal sentiments, which, though rarely found except in minds truly philosophic, ought always to animate the bosoms of those who rule over and administer the affairs of nations. By no writer is the cause of the Catholics more warmly or more ably advocated than by this Protestant Clergyman. He argues against the impolicy of that civil exclusion which they wish to have abolished; and in behalf of that wise system which would 'melt all principles, however discordant on some speculative points, into one common mass of practical exertion for the public good.' It is judiciously contended that, 'however the Christian may lament the errors of popery, the politician is concerned with those errors only which affect the welfare of society;' and that 'it is persecution (at least it is degradation, a treatment which makes a deeper impression on the heart of sensibility) to shut the door against our fellow-subjects, to treat them as aliens, and unworthy of offices of trust because they have not yet renounced their theological errors.' Dr. Valpy recommends the conciliation of the Catholics of Ireland, as a matter both of justice and of wisdom; and we have the pleasure of adding that his sentiments are in perfect unison with our own. — On the whole, we may remark that he is one of those writers who make us amends for much unprofitable toil, by furnishing us with something which is worth reading; — with something which shews that the author speaks from a full and an amiable mind, and is anxious to promote the charities of Christianity.

It is surprising that so accurate a grammarian as Dr. V. should (p. 288. Vol. i.) use the adjective *scarce* for the adverb *scarcely;* common as is this obvious error.

ART.



ART. XI. *The morbid Anatomy of the human Gullet, Stomach, and Intestines.* By Alex. Monro, Jun. M. D. F. R. S. E. &c. &c. Royal 8vo. with Plates. 1l. 18s. Boards. Longman and Co. 1811.

IN making our observations on this work, it will not be necessary for us to offer any recommendation of the study of morbid anatomy, since the advantages arising from it are generally known and allowed. It is, indeed, chiefly from this source that the superiority of medical science in modern times is derived; since, with respect to the phænomena of disease, they were probably as carefully watched and as accurately described by our predecessors, as they are by any of the present race of physicians. With these sentiments respecting the importance of the subject, and being aware of the peculiarly favourable situation of the author, we took up the publication of Dr. Monro with the confident expectation of finding in it a store of valuable matter. Although too many instances occur to prove that science and genius are not hereditary, yet, in the present case, in which the possession of facts is the principal concern, it would seem to require only a moderate share of ability to produce an interesting volume, from the materials which have been accumulating at the first medical school in the world for nearly a century. The records of two preceding generations, and the opportunities of acquiring knowlege which must almost force themelves on one who holds the double capacity of professor and practitioner, are also external advantages which, perhaps, no other individual now living enjoys in an equal degree with the author. The volume is too bulky for us to examine in succession every part of its contents; and we shall, according to our usual custom on such occasions, select some portions on which we shall offer our remarks, and which may serve as a specimen of the whole.

The subject which Dr. Monro has chosen for elucidation is one of the most extensive in its bearings and connections; including all the morbid changes which take place with respect to the stomach, the gullet, and the intestines. A considerable part of the utility of a treatise like the present, especially when it is employed for reference, depends on its arrangement; which, if easy and natural, in a discussion that is composed of a variety of parts not very intimately connected together, would be of great use in assisting the recollection of the reader, and in enabling him to benefit by the comparison of analogous observations. The objects of reference are obtained in a more simple way by the mechanical aids of indexes and tables of contents; aids not the less valuable because they are mechanical, and for the omission of which it is no excuse to say that every person has the power to supply them. Now, on

these points we have to lament deficiencies in Dr. Monro's volume. He lays down a plan, but it is complicated, and after all, not accurately pursued; no index is given; and the table of contents, although ample, is not divided into chapters or sections, so as to enable us to trace out the plan and connection of the different parts.

After some general remarks on the structure and functions of the alimentary canal, we are presented with the following classification of its organic diseases:

'The first class comprehends the explanation of the morbid effects which have resulted from hurtful substances swallowed by design or accident.

'The second class, the organic affections peculiar to the coats of the Alimentary Canal.

'The third, the nature and distressing consequences of the displacement of a part of the Alimentary Canal.

'The fourth is dedicated to an explanation of the various malconformations of the Alimentary Canal.

'The fifth, to a description of worms which occasionally infest the Alimentary Canal.

'And, the 6th, to an enumeration of the causes which lead to an enlargement of those neighbouring organs, which, by pressing upon the Alimentary Canal, prove a mechanical obstruction to the progress of its contents.'

Under the first class, we have an interesting account of a set of bodies which perhaps in strictness do not belong to it, the morbid concretions that are occasionally found in the intestines. Such bodies are not uncommon in quadrupeds, but, from the concomitant testimony of all anatomical writers, they are very rare in the human species; and we believe that the account of them which is now given by Dr. Monro is by much the most complete that has ever been laid before the public. They were analyzed by Dr. Thomson; whence it appears that the chief part of their bulk is composed of a very singular substance, which

'Had the appearance of cork, or rather of the peculiar fungus which is used on the continent for tinder, and which the French call Amador. It was in very short threads. This substance is tasteless, insoluble in water, alcohol, ether, potash ley, and muriatic acid. It blackens sulphuric acid, and is dissolved, being partly reduced to charcoal. In nitric acid it dissolves very slowly, and only when assisted by heat, and hardly effervesces. When the solution is evaporated to dryness, a whitish residue remains, which has a bitterish taste, and is imperfectly soluble in water. Nitric acid does not convert it into any of the vegetable acids, though digested on it repeatedly. This substance burns with a slight flame, and rather like a vegetable than an animal body. It is undoubtedly of a peculiar nature, differing

ing from every animal and vegetable substance hitherto examined. Its insolubility in potash ley distinguishes it readily from Wood. It has no resemblance to any animal substance whatever.'

This peculiar substance is arranged in alternate layers with phosphate of lime, and the whole seems to be cemented by albumen. A minute detail is given of the symptoms produced by the lodgment of these bodies in the alimentary canal, and an account of the means that were suggested for their removal. The report of symptoms is valuable, but we conceive that the proposed method of treatment is in some parts insignificant, and in others, where an operation was proposed, dangerous.

Chapter III., on the organic diseases of the alimentary canal, occupies a large share of the volume, and contains much interesting information. The diseases are arranged as they affect the different coats, the villous, the cellular, the muscular, and the peritoneal; to which is added a class of diseases that affect all the coats; and lastly those that are produced by the derangement of the mucous glands. We shall transcribe the heads of the different subjects announced in this chapter, from which our readers will perceive the extent of the range which Dr. Monro has embraced in his plan:

' *Of the Organic Derangements of the Villous Coat of the Alimentary Canal.*

' Inflammation, Thickening, Ulceration, and Gangrene.
' Ulceration and Erosion, from Dysentery.
' Milt-like Tumour.
' Polypi.
' Sarcomata.
' Fatty Tumours.
' Fungous Tumours.
' Hæmorrhoids.
' Varicose Tumours.
' Strictures, where the other coats are not affected.
' Projecting Ring of Dr. Baillie.
' Aphthae.
' Small-pox Pustule.
' Deposition of Cartilage.
' Formation of Bone.

' *Of the Organic Derangements of the Cellular Coat.*

' Phlegmon and its consequences.
' Albuminous Tumour.
' Diseases communicated, which originate in the other coverings of the Alimentary Canal.

' *Of the Organic Derangements of the Muscular Coats.*

' Inflammation and its consequences.
' Spasm.

'*Of the Organic Derangements of the Peritoneal Coat.*

Inflammation, Effusion of Coagulable Lymph and Serum, Adhesion, Ulceration, Gangrene.

'Small Tumours, commonly called Scrofulous.

'Ossification.

'*Of the Organic Derangements of all the Coats.*

'Inflammation, and its effects.

'Stricture.

'Scrofula.

'Coats converted into pulpy matter.

'Induration of the Coats.

'Extension into pouches.

'Rupture.

'*Of the Organic Derangements of Mucous Glands.*

'Inflammation and its consequences.

'Scirrhus and Cancer.

'Lastly, the Alimentary Canal is frequently thrown into a morbid state, by the spreading of the organic diseases of those organs which are in the vicinity of it.'

In describing the individual diseases, the plan pursued is to give a sketch of the opinions and statements of contemporaneous writers, and afterward to compare them with the facts or cases that have fallen under the notice of the author or his relatives. In general, we observe a disposition to do justice to others, but in some instances we discover a strong bearing towards the members of his own family; and the present professor seems disposed to keep up the custom of appropriating to the Monros most of the anatomical discoveries of modern times. As an illustration of this assertion, we may point out the section in which is described the milt-like tumor of the mucous membrane. Dr. M. informs us that

'This tumour has, as far as I know, entirely escaped the attention of Pathologists.

'I have called it Milt-like Tumour, as it resembles, in colour and consistence, the milt of many fishes; and have added the words of Mucous Membranes, as it grows only from membranes of that description.

'This tumour bears some analogy to the tumour described by my Grandfather, under the name of an Anomalous Tumour, and which has been lately called, by Mr. Burns of Glasgow, Spongoid Inflammation, and by Hey of Leeds, the Fungus Hæmatodes.'

In this passage, Dr. Monro acknowleges that a disease, which his grandfather had left without a name, had received an appropriate appellation from succeeding observers; yet attachment to his ancestor induces him to prefer the title 'the anomalous tumor of my grandfather,' to the names

en given by Mr. Burns and Mr. Hey. The account of t-like tumor is, however, very satisfactory; especially in which the author compares it with the fungus hæma- We quote this as a specimen of Dr. Monro's talent at cal description:

Anomalous Tumour of my grandfather differs, as to its , from the Milt-like Tumour; the latter is generally con- ith a serous membrane.

Anomalous Tumour is sometimes connected with the Pe- of the Bones, with the Capsular Ligaments of the Joints, y with that of the Hip-joint, with the Peritoneum which overs the Liver, Spleen, Ovarium, and Uterus, and with the ea and Vaginal Coats of the Testicle; with the Coats of the ferve, and Sclerotic Coat of the Eye; all of these membranes ed among the Serous Membranes.

etimes the Anomalous Tumour, or the Fungus Hæmatodes Hey, is said to take its origin in the Muscles and Cellular e.

etimes it begins as a distinct Tumour.

etimes it appears as an enlargement of the part affected.

s progress it bursts, and a soft dark purple-coloured fungous nce rises from the centre, which bleeds profusely, and it in- ery rapidly in size in a short time.

Milt-like tumour is much softer, it has not the same purple nd firm elastic feeling as the Anomalous tumour before it which Mr. Burns has compared to a sponge tied up very in a piece of Bladder; and I have never observed any appear- fungous ulceration of the Milt-like tumour.

e Milt-like tumour is nearly of an uniform consistence in art, and the lobes are not so distinct as in the Anomalous , which are separated from each other by membranes.

e Milt-like tumour is, in colour and consistence, uniform in art; whereas the section of the anomalous tumour exhibits, in rent parts, a different colour, and also a different consistence, ing as soft as brain, and others as hard as the yolk of an egg, ers like cartilage; beside, there are frequently cavities within our, filled with fluid tinged by blood.

e disease I have been endeavouring to describe appears only ced life; whereas the anomalous tumour is, in many instances, e of infancy, childhood, and of the meridian of life.'

have mentioned above that the author does not always adhere to the arrangement which he has formed; and present chapter he has a section on hydatids, which is nounced among the subjects as quoted above. It is between the organic derangements of the peritoneal nd the organic derangements of all the coats; although, , it does not properly belong to either. The section in s valuable, and contains the best account of these singular ctions that we remember to have read.

An instance of inaccuracy is manifest in this part, which, although it may seem merely verbal, and nothing more than an error of the press, is of some importance in a work of reference; viz. the occurrence of two *third* chapters; the one of which we have given an account, and the other on obstructions originating from a displacement of a portion of the alimentary canal. Among these obstructions, a principal share of the author's attention is directed to hernia; and although we discover some want of method in his arrangement, and occasionally some vagueness in his statements, we are disposed to give him considerable credit for the extent of his information, and for the good sense which he displays in deciding between the contending opinions of his contemporaries. We think, however, that too large a share of the work is devoted to the subject of crural hernia; which the author had previously treated in a separate publication, and which, however important in itself, should not have been permitted to occupy more than its due proportion of a general system. A considerable quantity of interesting communications from Mr. Allen Burns of Glasgow is inserted in this chapter, and they materially add to its value; displaying an acuteness of judgment and a perspicuity of style which lead us occasionally to form comparisons not the most favourable to some other parts of the volume.—The subject of hernia has of late so very frequently fallen under our observation, that we shall not enter on a detailed account of Dr. Monro's statement respecting it, more especially as we do not meet with any thing that can be considered as new, in point of either facts or opinions. We have a short chapter on worms, but the sixth branch of the subject, as announced in the introduction, is omitted.

On the whole, we must speak of Dr. Monro's production in terms of commendation, though we do not believe that it will rank as a first-rate performance. It is a valuable aggregate of facts, but it is not so perfect as to be regarded as a complete collection; nor has it a sufficient portion of new matter to prevent the interest from flagging in so long a work. We are induced to conclude that the Doctor is not very deeply read in the modern continental writers, not only from the large claims which he makes for his family, but still more from the circumstance of his attributing to Dr. C. Smyth the ideas which originated with M. Bichat. A person who would receive a parliamentary reward for a discovery which was made by another, and which he adopted without understanding its principle, should be watched with a jealous eye whenever he lays claim to originality.

ART.

ART. XII. *The Formations and Manœuvres of Infantry*, calculated for the effectual Resistance of Cavalry, and for attacking them successfully, on new Principles of Tactics. By the Chevalier Duteil, Major of the Regiment of Toul; of the Royal Corps of Artillery; and Member of various Scientific Academies. Translated from the French. With a Preface by the Translator; containing some Account of the Rise and Progress of modern Tactics; Animadversions on Defects; Political Observations; and Hints leading to Improvements: and also, the Causes of Errors in Projectiles, as far as they arise from Inaccuracy in the casting of Mortars; in the Construction of Instruments; in their Application; or in the driving of Fuzes; and proposed Remedies fully exemplified, and illustrated in a *Preface Plate*. By John Macdonald, Esq., F.R.S., F.Ac.S., late Lieutenant-Colonel and Engineer; Translator of the French Tactics, &c. &c., and Author of a Treatise on Telegraphic Communication. 12mo. pp. 140. and seven Plates. 7s. 6d. Boards. Egerton.

AFTER having long and seriously examined the question, whether infantry in an open and plain country be capable, by means of certain formations and manœuvres, of not only resisting a charge of cavalry successfully but even of attacking them, the Chevalier Duteil states, in the short preface to this small performance, his motives for offering his sentiments on a subject respecting which military men have long entertained different opinions:

'Several General officers having remarked that infantry were destitute of proper manœuvres for resisting or attacking cavalry, and being unable to deny that all that has hitherto been urged has proved inadequate, complicate, or inefficient, I am induced to anticipate a part of my tactical work relative to this specific object.

'I shall commence by the statement of some observations on those opinions most generally received; and to make it appear that the manœuvres which I am to propose are applicable to every description of formation, I shall suppose them executed by from one to four battalions, with and without cannon. I shall, as much as possible, avoid quotations from, and references to, ancient history, from a conviction that they are but too often, and in many respects, exaggerated and fictitious. I mean not to enter into any minute or detailed comparison of my manœuvres with those to be seen in different works and authorized military rules and regulations, in order to avoid tedious and unprofitable discussions. I address myself principally to well-informed and intelligent characters who may be pleased to take the trouble to judge of what is brought forward. I shall be happy if success should result from the investigation: but if not, the consolation will remain of having employed myself usefully, and of having probably been the means of inducing some other person to handle the subject more ably.

'There are many officers of distinction who seem to doubt the importance of the present discussion. This rivalship, they say, between

the infantry and cavalry, is of no signification, as a matter of controversy, particularly as it tends to inspire an emulation tending to lead to victory. It is of little general consequence that cavalry can attack infantry regularly drawn up and formed, if that very infantry have been successful. On the contrary, why not keep up that reciprocal boldness and emulation between these two descriptions of force? That it ought to be so is evident; because this emulation and rivalry, if they are favourable in producing victory, are in an equal degree prevalent in the ranks of the enemy; and therefore the result must be similar on both sides, under a tendency to render the final issue uncertain. All must be impressed with a sense of the vast utility of cavalry in armies, and of their importance when judiciously employed. Cavalry ought not to be exposed to the destructive fire of infantry and urged on to charge an irresistible formation in mass, when infantry can be opposed to infantry, to effect the object in view; thus preserving the cavalry, so expensive to the state, for important and decisive occasions. Every species of force has its peculiar excellence and must be confined to its particular province. If artillerymen, on an emergency, have successfully discharged the duties of grenadiers, it would be somewhat preposterous in them always to expect to be employed as troops of the line. From what has been said it must result, that each description of the army should be confined to its proper sphere of action; and that the infantry, the most important class of any, should be formidable by its discipline, formations, and continued fire; yielding to nothing but what human exertion cannot resist, the power of numbers. Such are the scope and object of the manœuvres which I will venture to offer in the present work; and if I have not mistaken the shadow for the substance, I trust to be able to establish the validity of my positions.'

Before he gives an account of his formations of infantry for resisting the attacks of cavalry, the author suggests several observations on some manœuvres that have been proposed against horse-men, with his opinion on the fire of infantry opposed to cavalry; and he makes a comparison between the musket and bayonet, and pikes and lances, (which have of late been frequently recommended) and the missile instruments and weapons formerly used. He disapproves the plan of drawing up columns on a line, with intervals between them, as subject to serious danger and inconvenience; and he thinks that the position of columns flanking one another is disadvantageous, because liable to be easily thrown into disorder when attacked diagonally. The forming of infantry in a general column, or rectangle, commonly called an oblong square, he likewise considers as extremely weak, for various reasons; namely, that cavalry can manœuvre on its diagonals close to it, and without running any risk, since its four exterior right angles are totally destitute of fire; that it is unwieldy in its movements, and therefore very subject to be thrown into confusion; that

manœuvres are tedious; that its preparatory movements are complicated and difficult; and that its guns are badly situated, neither securing sufficiently the intervals in which they are placed, nor providing for the safety of the ammunition and other articles attached to them.

With regard to the fire of infantry against cavalry, the Chevalier observes that the fire of one or more ranks, which has been prescribed, or that of files, according to the regulations, is in a great measure thrown away, and makes but a slight impression; and that the oblique fire proposed in the general essay on tactics is impracticable and dangerous. He then proceeds thus:

'I assert that, when fire is to be employed against cavalry, it becomes necessary to proportion the effect to the cause: that is to say, that a fire must be thrown forward from all parts of the front threatened. This *mass of fire* thrown in at the distance of thirty paces from the enemy, and well levelled at the breasts of the horses, will suffice for stopping the career of the cavalry; or, at any rate, for checking and breaking that impulse which has been reckoned so formidable. The noise of this heavy mass of fire, and its effect on the leading squadron, ought, at this distance, to create the utmost confusion. I assert farther, that the cavalry must be confounded in observing the infantry in the best order, waiting for their charge, in order to give them an effectual discharge, when close up. What impression must not this make on the succeeding squadrons? What a spectacle must it be to them to see the greatest part of those preceding them, overturned and destroyed? The disorder, and the horses strewed about, will form an obstacle which will prevent a charge on the same point. The heaps of men and horses covering the ground will constitute a sort of entrenchment that will force the remaining cavalry to take another direction, under the disadvantage of exposing a flank, and of experiencing, in all probability, a similar fate.'

Facts, however, militate against this favourite distance of thirty paces for the Chevalier's fire of infantry. In proof of this assertion, it is barely necessary to instance the battle of Castiglione, and that of Belgrade, as mentioned by Marshal Saxe; who very justly remarks that the experience of all mankind has shewn, that no single discharge was ever so violent as to disable an enemy from advancing afterward, to take ample revenge by pouring in his fire, and at the same instant rushing in and closing. The Marshal adds that by this method only can numbers be destroyed and victories obtained; and it was thus that the celebrated Duke of Marlborough and Prince Eugene gained most of their battles.

In comparing the musket and bayonet with the spears and lances of the antients, the author asks, p. 96. 'Did not the Thessalian

Thessalian cavalry triumph over the infantry at the battle of Arbela, though the latter were armed with those long weapons, to the use of which continued custom had habituated them? Did not Philopœmen gain a victory over Machanidas near Mantinea? &c.' It would appear that his object, in asking these questions, is to prove by facts that which he roundly asserts, contrary to the opinions of some of the ablest Generals in modern times, viz. that the musket and bayonet are *infinitely superior* to either spears or lances. He is greatly deceived, however, with regard to his facts, and apparently unacquainted with the circumstances of those two engagements. In the first of them, the Thessalian cavalry were posted in the left wing of Alexander's army, under the command of Parmenio: but these were not engaged with the Persian infantry but with the Armenian cavalry, whom they enabled the Greek cavalry in that wing to overthrow, after they had been so hardly pressed by them as even to be obliged to fall back before the centre of Darius's army gave way, and thus contributed materially to complete that famous victory; and even on the supposition that they were principally engaged with the Persian infantry, which in fact they were not, it would not follow that they were opposed to either spears or lances; since the bodies composing that infantry were armed very differently, having among them all kinds of weapons, and some of them even hatchets and clubs. As to the victory, which Philopœmen gained over Machanidas, it was not obtained by means of his cavalry, but chiefly by his skill and good management in ordering his own phalanx to level their spears, and charge that of the Lacedæmonians, at the very instant when the latter attempted to cross the ditch which separated them, and run from the neighbourhood of the temple of Neptune across the plain of Mantinea to the mountains that bordered the Elisha-sian territory.

In order to resist attacks of cavalry, the Chevalier first considers the formation of one battalion of infantry from a column of route or march in a hollow square, either with or without field-pieces; secondly, the formation in the same way of two battalions from a column of route into a hollow square, either with or without field-pieces; and lastly, the formation of four battalions, either with or without field-pieces, into such a square. The field-pieces he stations on the diagonals of the squares; and, when no artillery is used, he places subdivisions of infantry perpendicularly across these diagonals, thus giving each square a sort of octagonal form.

The following is his description of the method which he proposes for forming one battalion with field-pieces into a square,

square, when at the distance of 1000 yards from cavalry; which will convey an idea of his manner of giving the square formation also to two and four battalions with their guns:

'When at the distance of 1000 yards, the battalion shall be halted, and formed into close column. This being done, the five front companies are to be ordered to march forward, in order to form an interval of thirty-two paces between the fifth and sixth companies. Immediately afterwards, the order will be given — BATTALION, FORM THE SQUARE COLUMN. This word of command is merely *a preparatory caution*, previously to giving the word of command; — TO THE RIGHT AND LEFT, FACE. On this, the two front and two rear companies of the column will face, the one to the right, and the other to the left. The guns will be faced to right and left, to clear the line of march. On the word — MARCH, they will move in the direction in which they are faced, the length of the front of a subdivision. They will then wheel by files respectively, to the right, and will move on to form the right and left flanks of the hollow square. The line of their march is previously marked by supernumerary serjeants, so placed that the interval between the flanks on the inside may be the same as between the inside of the front and rear-sides, viz. thirty-two paces. The marking serjeants remain till the companies are halted, and fronted towards the front of the square, in their new position. At the word, — HALT, FRONT, — the companies filing, will halt, and those that filed to the right will face to the right about, to the front of the square. In this position, the hollow square can be readily marched to front, rear, right, or left flank, by merely facing to right, and left, and right-about. If the square is to wait for the attack of the enemy, it will remain facing to the front of the square, and the word, FORM FLANKS, will be given. On this, the company in front, and the company in rear of the square, will face outwards, by subdivisions, to right and left; and on the word — MARCH, will wheel, by files, to the right and left, in order to post themselves covering the flanks of the two companies, respectively forming the front and rear faces of the square. At the word, HALT, FRONT, — the subdivisions will halt, and the subdivisions covering the flanks of the two companies forming the front-face of the square, will face to the right-about. With the exception of the precautionary words of command, the officers commanding the subdivision will give the *words of execution.*

'The companies and subdivisions which have marched in file, in order to form the flanks of the square hollow column, and to flank the angles, will on one of the flanks of the square, and at two of the angles, have, from the nature of the movement, their rear ranks placed outwards. The flanking subdivisions will receive the executing words of command from their respective officers. The officers will take post as in the instance when the battalion fires to the rear, with the rear-rank foremost, according to the *regulations.*'

When the battalion has no field-pieces, the author's directions for giving to it the square-formation, and for putting it in motion, are thus stated:

'Let

'Let it now be supposed that the square is not furnished with field-pieces. In this case, the distance between the fifth and sixth companies will consist of thirty paces only. On the word of command, CLOSE THE INTERVALS; BY SUBDIVISIONS TO THE RIGHT AND LEFT, FACE; MARCH,—the subdivisions of the fifth and sixth companies will face outwards to the right and left, and file across the intervals. At the word, HALT, FRONT, these subdivisions will halt, and face outwards, as the square is without guns; in this instance, the companies of the front and rear faces are not covered in flank by subdivisions.

'If, in this formation of the square it became necessary to put it in motion, the word would be given, SUBDIVISIONS,—TO YOUR COLUMN-POSITIONS IN SQUARE. On this the subdivisions which closed the intervals, would, by a contrary movement, file back to their original position. In these two movements the *cautionary commands* are given by a superior officer; and the *words of execution* will be given by the officers in command of these subdivisions. It will be readily perceived with what facility a square of this nature can march, as its sides present only the length of one company.'

When the battalion is without guns, grenadiers, and light infantry, each of the interior sides of the square into which it is formed will be equal only to the length of the front of one company, and the angles will be exactly closed. Care must then be taken, however, as the Chevalier observes, to prevent the flanks of the sides from being locked in behind, or partly covering internally those of the front and rear-faces, which would indeed render each of the remaining parts of these last-mentioned interior sides less in length than the front of a company. He calculates the time requisite for forming one column into a hollow square, to be half a minute and seven seconds; for converting two battalions into such a square, one minute; and the time in which four may be formed into a hollow square, at 1′ 30″. The principles to be followed in marching squares are thus briefly laid down:

'It may be observed that the hollow squares described in the present work are composed of four close columns, one of which constitutes each side. The side of the square that leads must always be held responsible that the given line of direction and the points marched on, are accurately maintained and moved on. The close column of companies or grand divisions forming the rear-face of the hollow square, is to march on the file-leaders of the front-face, taking care to keep parallel to it, without any deviation either to right or left. The close columns of companies or grand divisions, constituting the sides or flanks of the square, are to march by the centre, taking care not to open out, to keep parallel to each other, and to move uniformly, so as to preserve always the same regular distance from the centre, and from each other.

'As often as there may be occasion to form the square from column of march, the colours, followed by the two most contiguous non-

non-commissioned officers, are to be conducted to the centre of the square. But whenever the square is to march, the colours of that battalion which may have a company, or grand division belonging to it, situated in the leading face, or at the head of the square, are to proceed, accompanied by two non-commissioned officers, to the front of the companies or grand divisions of such side of the square, in order to conduct the march of the square on given points. When the square halts, or has to commence an action, the colours are to be reconducted to the centre.'

In speaking of what he conceives to be the most advantageous mode of conducting and directing the fire of infantry against cavalry, M. Duteil delivers this opinion:

'I do not approve of throwing out rifle-men, or light infantry taken from the square, in order to oppose the same description mounted and detached from the cavalry; because their arms are not loaded and reloaded with the same precision and coolness as when in their ranks, for they hurry their firing and loading, and both are, consequently, executed imperfectly. Besides, when they are called in, to re-enter their respective rank in their companies, they are very apt to create confusion, to derange their ranks, and to afford a favourable opportunity of acting to some enterprising and daring troopers who pursue them. The serious inconvenience arising from this, induces me to prefer giving this recreation, or military amusement, to the file of officers and non-commissioned officers who are in the ranks. These might advance ten paces in front of their companies, without attending to any dressing on each other, and fire, independently, on the cavalry, when pretty close, and always at the horses. These officers and non-commissioned officers would throw in a most destructive fire, and would resume their original positions in their ranks, without occasioning the smallest disorder. The captain, during the firing, would remain at the head of his company, and would resume his place, as soon as the light infantry were called in.

'With respect to the fire of the square, I am thoroughly convinced that the very first discharge thrown in, as has been directed, will deter the cavalry from facing or encountering a second. But still, should it prove necessary to give a second fire, the men of the companies that have fired, will, as soon as perfect order has been established, exchange arms with the men who are situated in their rear, and these last have no occasion to load the arms delivered to them in this manner. This interchange of arms is effected by handing the discharged arms with the left hand, from man to man, and by receiving back in return the loaded arms of the men in the rear, from right hand to right hand. Should the charges made by the cavalry succeed each other so rapidly as to prevent this interchange of arms from front to rear, it must be evident that there would be still less time for reloading the discharged arms; under these circumstances bayonets must be charged, projecting them forward as much as possible, by the closing or locking up of the centre and rear rank.

'The superior officers will watch over and superintend the regularity and arrangement of the close columns forming the sides of the square,

square, so as to direct the order of firing, the precision of the march and the accurate formation of the hollow square from column of route. The commander will attend to the due arrangement of the tumbrils and ammunition waggons; and as some of these may contain infantry cartridges, and probably indispensable baggage, his reflection and foresight will enable him to adopt measures of utility, defence, and precaution, adapted to unexpected exigencies, all of which a treatise of this nature cannot be expected to provide for.

'The above appears to be the most advantageous mode of employing the fire of infantry against cavalry: and it must be always attended to, as an essential and fundamental principle, never to fire wild musquetry against cavalry, at a greater distance than thirty paces, levelling at the breasts of the horses; because, it has been ascertained by experience, that the centre and rear ranks, on account of our inaccurate manner of presenting, fire always too high. Experience also teaches us, that the horses of the troopers who have been killed, continue the charge along with the other horses of the squadron they belong to; a circumstance affording a convincing proof of the eligibility of killing the horse in preference to his rider. It ought, also, to be recollected, that though the horse may not actually be killed, yet, that if some of his limbs are broke or disabled, he will be rendered physically useless as to his impulsive movement, and occasion a degree of confusion and disorder in the squadron that will be proportioned to the number of broken or disabled limbs of horses. This effect must be still greater where the horses happen to be actually killed.

'Should these opinions not possess weight enough to induce a change in the usual practice of defence against cavalry, independent file-firing, as prescribed by the *regulations*, may be had recourse to; and still these squares would continue to possess every other advantage enumerated.

'Let any reader now consider, whether it be possible to assume a defensive arrangement that will present a less extensive front, and afford more scope for the efforts of cavalry: let him consider whether a numerous cavalry, highly skilled in manœuvring, and remarkable for impetuosity of charge, can terrify and over-awe infantry equally strong on all sides, and well flanked. Let the reader reflect how very formidable and serviceable are the manœuvres of the artillery moving to and protecting every part of these hollow columns. Let it be recollected how decisive and destructive must be the fire of the infantry, when conducted as described.'

Notwithstanding the confident manner in which the Chevalier talks of making infantry, formed in squares as he directs, not only resist charges of cavalry but even attack them with advantage, we are inclined to think, from the great quantity of dead parts near every angle of his squares, that cavalry determined to make a resolute charge would easily break into any of them, and in a few minutes disperse or cut them in pieces. For instance, even in his square formed from four battalions of route or march, we discover on each side of every front of it, at

e distance only of about the length of the front of one ıany, and of nearly the same breadth, dead parts contained ght lines parallel to one another, independently of those its angles between lines that diverge and gradually recede : and more from each other.

ıis treatise concludes with an appendix, in which the author s the result of trials and experiments made at Strasburg, ive to the celerity of the charges of cavalry.

ıe translator's preface occupies a greater number of pages the Chevalier's observations; and we are sorry to be under ıecessity of observing, that it appears to us to be a very :ogeneous mixture. The long and numerous notes to it aiu a multiplicity of observations respecting gunnery, which no tendency whatsoever to ascertain the law of the air's tance, or the real tract of a ball projected in it. In the the writer begins with an account of the rise, progress, present state of the tactics of modern Europe; which, he (but for what reason we know not,) is expected in all cs on the art of war; and he ends with a strangely mis- ed declamation against political grumblers and projects of rm. If all those, who are advocates for correcting abuses reforming Parliament, are to be regarded as conspirators, rnal enemies, and members of revolutionary gangs, the late Pitt, to whom Colonel Macdonald formerly offered up :rabundant incense, ought certainly to have been considered n arch-one. Parliamentary reform was the political ladder means of which he rose into power; and after he had :hed the summit, and found this ladder no longer necessary, fastidiously pushed from him the very instrument of his ation. That person cannot be much acquainted with the ory of this country, the nature of legitimate representation, he principles on which it was originally founded in England,) supposes that the existing state of the House of Commons proof that we are 'following the footsteps of our ancestors.' Ve know not how it happens in the present day, that almost ry writer on tactics, or other military subjects, introduces antient Romans; whose exercises, discipline, arrangement of ps, and military customs and institutions, bore no resem- ıce to those of modern times. At the top of page xxix., onel Macdonald asserts that a consular army consisted of ooo men, and that this was reckoned the most advantageous nber: but he does not inform us on what ground he makes statement, which departs widely from the best authorities the subject. We should have been glad to learn from him en a consular army consisted of that number of men, and ere or on what service it was employed. The constant custom

custom of the Romans, as we are expressly told by Polybius, was to raise annually four legions only; and to allow to each four thousand foot and two hundred horse, unless they were pressed by some great and unusual danger, when they increased the number to five thousand foot and three hundred horse. Their allies supplied the same number of infantry that was in the legions, but thrice as many cavalry. Of these forces, two legions and one half of the allies were allotted to each consul, who was then sent to prosecute the war in his own province or district. A consular army, therefore, in ordinary and most cases, was composed of sixteen thousand foot and sixteen hundred horse; and even in times of great emergency and danger, it amounted only to twenty thousand foot and two thousand four hundred horse. They had no standing army; and, chiefly by steering clear of such establishments, they enjoyed substantial liberty under a mixed government, composed of the three simple forms, much longer than we have yet had even the semblance of it among us.

MONTHLY CATALOGUE,

For NOVEMBER, 1812.

AGRICULTURE.

Art. 13. *The Second Report of the Merino Society.* Established 4th March 1811. 8vo. pp. 161.

Some persons have expressed themselves adverse to the introduction of the Merino breed of sheep in this country: but it does not appear that these objectors calculate on the wants of our woollen manufactory, and on the alterations which political changes have made in our external relations. It is probable that the future supply from Spain will be very unequal to our demand. The importation from that country in the year 1810 amounted to 8,133,205lbs.; whereas in 1811 it was only 4,291,973lbs., being little more than half of the quantity furnished to our manufacturers in the preceding year; and it may be rationally conjectured that the importation of the current year will not equal even that of the last. The question, then, which here presents itself is, How are our manufacturers of fine woollen goods to be supplied with the raw material? We must either encourage the Merino breed at home, or we must depend on France and other countries for a supply. As we are a *mutton-eating* people, the carcase of the sheep is to us a matter of as much importance as the fleece; and a prejudice has been excited against Merino mutton, which has tended to check the increase of this breed in our own island. The first aim of the Report before us is to refute this objection. It is asserted that 'Mutton is eaten in Spain only by the lowest description of the people, except in the houses of a few noblemen and gentle-

gentlemen, who graze Merino *wethers* in the English manner; and the excellence of their mutton has never been questioned.'—'Mr. King of Newgate market,' it is added, 'sells Merino mutton, for a halfpenny a pound more than any other; not, as he declares, on account of public curiosity, but its superior flavour.' An excellence, moreover, peculiar to this breed of sheep and their crosses, but hitherto little noticed, is here mentioned, viz. 'Their hind quarters are heavier than their fore quarters; consequently, the greater weight of mutton is in the more profitable joints.'

The next object introduced is *Purity of Blood*, and it is given as the opinion of the Society 'that, in all crossing, the male of the unmixed Merino ought uniformly to be preferred, to secure as much of the pure blood as possible.' We find that the French, after an experience of 30 years, and the Merino Society in North America, maintain the same doctrine.

To promote the desirable point of *the washing of Merino wool* by the grower, for the use of the manufacturer, several directions are given. Indeed, the different treatment which Merino wool requires, compared with that which is obtained from our own breeds, stands in need of being explained. For this purpose, we are presented with a judicious essay *On the Growth and Management of Merino Wool*, in the United Kingdom, by G. Webb Hall, Esq. Though it is an ascertained fact that fine wool may be grown in this island, and on an excellent carcase, yet, says Mr. Hall, 'powerful obstacles exist which must be removed, before the object of supplying our manufactories, within ourselves, can be said to be in a fair way of attainment.' This gentleman calculates that 2,500,000 Merino sheep will be necessary for the growth of the quantity of wool required for our fine woollen goods; and that we cannot expect, even under the most spirited management, that this object can be accomplished in less than 20 or 30 years from this period. Surely, then, as he observes, manufacturers should afford every encouragement to the home-growers of fine wool, by purchasing it *in the grease* at an adequate price; especially as the destruction of the flocks in Spain, by the war in that country, must preclude even the possibility of our being supplied from that quarter. He speaks more to the point, however, when, aware of the prejudices, and, we may add, the habits of manufacturers, who are adverse to the purchase of the raw material in this slovenly condition, (observing that "they know not what they are about,") he earnestly recommends it to our wool-growers, as an absolute *sine quâ non*, '*to bring their commodity to market in the like merchantable state as it arrives from Spain.*' 'Let it,' he continues, 'be the pride of the English grower of fine wool to sort and wash his commodity from all filth and impurities; and *fine wool* will ever be as fine gold, as long as luxury shall exist, no matter where grown, so that *it be fine wool*, and brought to market in a marketable condition.' The remainder of Mr. H.'s sensible essay is occupied in obviating the objections which may be made against this plan, and in detailing the methods which he himself has successfully employed, in washing and sorting the fine wool of his flock: which amounts, including sheep and lambs, to between 5 and 6000. Of course, Mr. H. operates on a large scale, and his statement is very encouraging.

This report contains one list of the members of the Society which is numerous and respectable; another of the officers of the Society; and a third of the local committees. It includes also rules and orders, an enumeration of premiums, and the adjudication of prizes, &c. The whole finishes with an Appendix, consisting of a long letter from the late Secretary to the President Sir Joseph Banks, Bart.; in which the writer produces numerous testimonies in favour of the Merino race, to obviate the impression made by Mr. Coke having abandoned it. Advice similar to that which is given by Mr. Hall is offered, on the subject of preparing the Merino wool for market; and, as it is probable that only a small proportion of the 6,000,000 of sheep which constituted the Spanish flock now exists in the Peninsula, and our inveterate enemy has issued an edict to prevent our manufactures from being supplied from France, we are urged to prosecute vigorous measures for increasing our fine wool-bearing flocks, that we may not feel the deficiency in the Spanish market.

Art. 14. *Agricultural Memoirs; or, History of the Dishley System;* in Answer to Sir John Saunders Sebright, Bart., M. P. By John Hunt, Author of Historical Surgery, &c. 8vo. pp. 149. 5s. Longman and Co. 1812.

Here we meet with a gentleman who writes himself out of temper on the subject of breeding *in-and-in;* and who, though he rambles to a variety of other topics, for the purpose (we should suppose) of recovering his good humour, remains unoxygenized *usque ad finem.* Mr. Hunt's wrath is not spent solely on Sir John Sebright, but the very age itself must undergo the lash. It is, forsooth, a paralytic age, in which the genius of the arts and sciences seems lost in soporific torpor. Yet, if Mr. H. thought that this was the real fact, it is surprising that he should waste so much unpromising energy on it. According to this writer, 'the times are much out of joint;' 'when Johnson died Biography ran mad;' and perhaps this will account for the wild biographical hints which occur in this pamphlet. Mr. Meynell, whose kennel of fox-hounds is often adduced in favour of the practice of breeding *in-and-in,* is eulogized to extravagance; and it is added that 'to doubt the accuracy of Mr. Meynell might justly be considered as the addition of a new miracle to the dark shades of infidelity.' As to Mr. Bakewell, he is mounted on his black horse, and placed by the side of Alexander the Great on Bucephalus; and it is not doubted that, if Captain Gulliver, who was well acquainted with the language of the Houyhnhyms, had been alive, he would have been in rapture with the Dishley farmer and his horse. What is all this, however, to the point at issue? We answer, *Nothing.* To declare the real truth, of the quantity of letter-press with which Mr. Hunt has here presented us, very little is immediately *ad rem.* It is sufficient to ask, from what circumstance have the improved breeds of animals proceeded? Did not Mr. Bakewell himself purchase animals for the purpose of crossing; and if he resorted to this expedient, can he be said to have rigidly followed the practice of breeding *in-and-in?*

'It is not to be supposed,' says Mr. Hunt, 'that because Mr. Bakewell and Mr. Meynell succeeded by breeding *in-and-in,* that family connexions

connexions should always prove infallible in the hands of those who do not understand the practical part of the subject. It was to Mr. Bakewell's accurate knowledge of animal nature that we must look back for the basis of his system, and to this alone we must attribute his success: his knowlege of the perfections and imperfections of a sheep was such as, in all probability, never will be equalled; and with respect to Mr. Meynell's knowlege of a fox-hound, it would be an insult *on the sacred character of the Graces* to have it for a moment called in question.'

Now what does this prove but the importance of skill in selecting animals for breeding? How long any particular race, when once formed, will remain in a perfect state by breeding *in-and-in*, we will not pretend to say: but sufficient evidence is at hand to prove the advantages of crossing. The Merino sheep, as imported from Spain, may not be fit for the double purpose of supplying good wool and good mutton: but Dr. Parry's crosses with the Rylands have succeeded in obtaining a breed in which the flesh is improved without any deterioration of fleece.

BIBLE-SOCIETY.

Art. 15. *Letters that have lately appeared in the Oxford and Cambridge Papers, under different Signatures, on the Crusade of the nineteenth Century;* collected and republished, and addressed to the Rt. Hon. Lord Grenville, Chancellor of the University of Oxford, and the Christians residing in the Counties of Oxford, Gloucester, Warwick, Northampton, Buckingham, and Berks., By Peter the Hermit. 8vo. pp. 120. 4s. sewed. Richardson. 1812.

This modern "Peter the Hermit" is a very strenuous advocate for that noble scheme of evangelizing the world which has been undertaken by the Bible-Society; and he cheerfully adopts the title given to it by the Margaret Professor, who sarcastically terms it "*The Crusade of the nineteenth Century.*" If it be a Crusade, it is, however, *bloodless;* and no weapons are here employed in favour of the cross but such as Christ himself allows. The promoters of the union of sects or churches, (for here the terms are synonymous,) in this world-embracing institution, have decidedly the advantage in point of argument over those persons who have unkindly laboured to destroy the harmony which subsists among the members of the Bible-Society; and we believe that the public, with a very few exceptions, are persuaded that the zeal of Professor Marsh and his party was not less illiberal than indiscreet. These enemies of a coalition between the members of the Established Church and Dissenters, for the purpose of extending the knowlege of the Holy Scriptures, (the basis of their common faith,) proceed on a principle refuted by every day's experience, that it is impossible for a number of persons to agree on *one* point, unless they also agree on *every* point at issue between them. Mr. Coker, the author of the first letter in this collection, takes it for granted that Dissenters, by giving their aid to the universal distribution of Bibles, are actuated by a secret hostility to the Established Church, and hope by this plan to accomplish its subversion: but, it is fair to ask, may not Dissenters, if they were so disposed, propagate an alarm of the same kind, by expressing their fears lest

a friendly intercourse between them and the numerous and well-educated members of the Established Church would tend to thin the ranks of Dissent? It should, however, be considered that the controversy between one church and another sinks into insignificance when we contemplate the comprehensive object of the Bible-Society; the members of which regard their own particular communion as *a mere speck* on the wide map of Christian benevolence which is spread before them. Mr. Hinton, and others who reply to Mr. Coker, endeavour to calm the apprehensions which are expressed for the safety of the Church of England, in consequence of a junction of its members with Dissenters in the distribution of Bibles. The very name *Dissenter* implies a disapprobation of some parts of the established system: but it by no means follows that a Dissenter wishes to *overturn* the Establishment; at most, he may only wish for some *alteration*; and since that cannot be obtained, he may be satisfied that he is permitted undisturbed to worship God conformably to his own views of the Gospel. Supposing him, however, to be bigotted to his own sect, what chance has he of injuring the established system, when he must always find a majority of the Society opposed to him? If any atom of party-spirit had appeared in the transactions of the Bible-Society, Dissenters might have been suspected of entertaining hostile views, but the fact is that the most perfect harmony and unity of design have prevailed. No member has talked of his own church, but all of the *Church of Christ*; no one has adverted to his own creed, but all have pointed to the avowed basis of all creeds, the Holy Scriptures. Such an union promises the best effects both at home and abroad, and we trust that nothing will disturb it: but they who have attempted this disturbance deserve all the reproof which they receive here and in other pamphlets. Assuming the principle that the British and Foreign Bible-Society is adapted infinitely beyond any other society extant to the universal diffusion of Christianity, and that every Christian party is bound *primâ facie* to give its utmost support to such an institution; it is asked, by one of these letter-writers,—'First, Whether any *political* interests can ever be allowed to circumscribe or qualify the extensiveness of this great Christian obligation? and, secondly, Whether the Church of England would be pursuing its best *policy* in withdrawing its support, and consequently its *superintendance* and *controul*, from the Society in question?' This gentleman, (who signs E. F.,) with a strong attachment to the Establishment, revolts at the insinuation which Dr. Marsh's objection to the Bible-Society seems to convey, and repels it in the most open and ingenuous manner:

'For my own part, the moment the circulation of the Scriptures becomes incompatible with the safety of the Church of England, or any other external and particular Church, I say, with Dr. Clarke, as it is the undoubted duty of every real Christian to say,—"Let that Church go!" To prove (as I said before) that this *is* the case with regard to the Church of England, I leave to Dr. Marsh, and those who think with him. I only say, that, if the circulation of Divine truth be essentially conducive to the discriminating intelligence, the moral integrity, the self-government, the obedience to *principle*, and the social order as well as the eternal interests of men, *nothing*

can

can be in danger from the circulation of Divine truth, *but* the temporal interests of the priests of those external Establishments and particular Churches, the political constitution of which will not admit of their becoming contributive to so Catholic and sublime a scheme: and that, *therefore*, if the opposition to the Bible-Society has any motive besides a spirit of controversy, it can be no other than a *Papal* motive; and that, however individual objectors may deceive themselves into a belief that they are not so influenced, without their being necessarily aware of it, a spirit of *Papacy* must be at the bottom of their objections.'

This is a home thrust. What confidence can that man have in his cause, who objects to the diffusion of the pure word of God? Let those who are afraid of the Bible be ashamed of zeal for their creed; for zeal under these circumstances is self-condemnation.—The manner in which this subject is taken up by many warm friends of the Establishment evinces the good sense and Catholic spirit which prevail among its members; and we hope that their benevolent endeavours to enlarge the boundaries of Christ's church, so far from being attended with any injurious results to our national religion, will be productive of much benefit to its real interests.

RELIGIOUS.

Art. 16. *Protestantism and Popery illustrated.* Two Letters from a Catholic Priest to the Author of the Sketch of the Denominations of the Christian World, with his Reply; tending to illustrate the real Sentiments of the Catholics throughout the United Kingdom. With Remarks on the Subject. By John Evans, A. M. Second Edition. 8vo. 1s. Crosby and Co.

Not the smallest doubt can be entertained of the arrival of a period in which the Christians of that age will be as much astonished that Popery ever obtained an extensive belief, as we are now surprised at the stupid idolatry of the Gentile world. Protestants, who endeavour to frame their faith on the pure records of the Gospel, are at a loss to account for the rigid adherence of some enlightened Catholics to opinions which both reason and Scripture seem alike to condemn. Mr. Berington, in his letters to Mr. Evans, complains that the view given by the latter (in his "Sketch of the Denominations of the Christian World") of Popery, as it is vulgarly called, or of the Roman Catholic Church, exhibits an unfair statement of the opinions of that church: but, as far as we are able to judge between these gentlemen, we cannot perceive that the Catholic has any great right to be offended. Mr. B. makes an assertion which it is very difficult to understand; when speaking of the members of his church, he says, 'Our opinions are various; our belief, or faith, one.' Now we shall not call this assertion a *bull:* but we shall attempt to develop the mystery which it contains. Though variety of opinion and unity of faith form a contradiction in terms, the phrase may convey a practical truth: viz. that Catholics think for themselves, but that they do not promulgate sentiments which are at variance with the faith of the church; or that they are in the habit of acquiescing in the Catholic creed, even when that creed is repugnant to their private belief. If

this be the meaning of the above assertion, into what an enslaved and degrading state does Catholicism sink the enlightened mind? If the right of private judgment can be exercised only in silence, well may Mr. B. reprobate freedom of inquiry, condemn the Reformation, and even insinuate a wish that the Scriptures had never been written! He says, 'had the Scriptures never been written, our faith would have been equally secure; where would yours have been? Did Christ leave any directions for the writing of his doctrines?' In answer to this curious remark, it is sufficient to put other questions. We would ask Mr. B., what is the security of a faith that wants evidence? Is not this equal to a direct admission that he considers the documents containing the words of Christ in the N. T. as repugnant to the Catholic system? To his quere, where would our religion have been without the Scriptures? we can easily reply, it would have been where his is; we should have been under the soul-oppressing dominion of that church of which he is the advocate. Suppose that a person had obtained possession of an estate by the fortunate discovery of the title-deeds, would it not be considered as an insult, if the individual who had long held the unlawful possession of it were to ask the real owner, "What would you have done had you not discovered the original writings?" His reply, however, would be easy. "You could have held the estate without these deeds: but I certainly owe the possession of my right to their being discovered." This case is in point. The Scriptures, by being laid open, have restored to us the liberty with which Christ has made us free: but the Church of Rome could have prosecuted her scheme of subjugating the human mind to her spiritual control much better without the Scriptures than she can do it with them. She may well express her concern that the great charter of our salvation has been brought to light; since by this discovery she has lost a most profitable estate, which she can never recover as long as the Scriptures are revered. The question, however, which Mr. Berington so triumphantly proposes, is nothing to the purpose. The point at issue is, which of our two creeds is most in unison with the Holy Scriptures? Will the faith of the Catholic Church endure to be brought to this touch-stone? Mr. Evans thinks it is wonderful (and so it would be if we had not too many instances of the power of system and early prepossessions,) that 'men of such learning and talents as Mr. Berington and Dr. Milner should advocate a religion, whence the exercise of reason is excluded.' To be sore on the subject of the Reformation indicates a state of mind which we wish that Mr. B. had not discovered: yet, if he feels himself hard-pushed respecting those evidences of divine truth which this glorious æra has diffused over once-benighted Europe, we see no reason why Catholic Emancipation should not be conceded in its fullest extent. We wish Catholics to be induced to speak out. Let amicable discussion take place between them and Protestants: let them reason; let them expostulate; let them banter; let them be sarcastic and witty with each other: but let the power of the state be never more employed to settle controversies. Discordant opinions are preferable to that gloomy and torpid unanimity which is produced by persecution.

EDUCATION,

EDUCATION, *&c.*

17. *A Series of Tales from a Preceptor to his Pupils.* Written
the Instruction and Admonition of Youth of both Sexes.
ndered from the German of the celebrated Adlerjung. By
n. Wennington. 12mo. 7s. Boards. Chapple. 1811.
atever spirit or interest these tales may possess in the original,
ompletely lost in this very lame translation; and the stories
n anecdotes of licentiousness and depravity which it would be
to keep from the knowlege of youth than to press on their
: lest they should resemble the Cock in the fable, whose curi-
was excited by the description of danger, and who, after having
into the Well, exclaimed,

"But for my mother's prohibition
I ne'er had been in this condition!"

18. *Thoughts on Education*, in two Parts: the first on general
ucation, and the second on that of Females. By Agnes
hia Semple, Daughter of the late Rev. Dr. Henry Hunter.
no. pp. 307. 7s. Boards. Murray. 1812.
"authors before they write *would* read," many might be assisted
e observations of others, and some few would be deterred from
hing their own by perceiving how "stale and unprofitable"
were likely to appear. In the present instance, Mrs. Semple
'that she has read but few writers on education;' and those
researches have been more extensive will find no obvious im-
ment of system or novelty of idea elicited in her work, although
tains several views of the subject, and is enlivened by agreeable
otes and quotations. Rousseau's opinion, that religious instruc-
should be deferred till the pupil has attained his fifteenth or
enth year, is ably combated at page 189.; and the strictures on
yce's Sermons to Young Women, p. 270., are not without
lation.
e also agree with the fair writer in regretting that music, draw-
nd dancing, are not more frequently taught by females, since such
yments would furnish a respectable addition to the few resources
n women possess for their own maintenance: but we cannot refine
does on the impropriety of the contrary method, nor 'consider
ngerous to the purity of youth the liberties which a dancing and
-master may and sometimes must take in directing the perform-
of their pupils.'

19. *First Lessons in English Grammar*, adapted to the
pacities of Children from Six to Ten Years old. 12mo. 9d.
ngman and Co. 1812.
his little book is well adapted to the instruction of very young
ren, the different parts of speech being explained in short and
le lessons; and the ingenious illustration of them at page 37.,
n from Abbé Bossuet's Grammar, is likely to captivate the
's attention, and to remain in his memory.

20. *The French Scholar's Depository;* in which are gradually
veloped the most important Elements of French Conversation.

By Anne Lindley, Author of "A Preparatory French Grammar," and "The Translator's Assistant." 12mo. 1s. 6d. Darton and Harvey. 1811.

The plan of this work is so judiciously arranged, that, if it were more carefully printed, it might be very useful: but, among other errors, we find at page 3., '*de la soi*,' for *de la soie*: p. 6. '*n'étois je frivole*,' for *n'étois je pas frivole*: p. 8. '*des tortine*,' for *des tartines*: p. 13. '*Conjugez*,' for *conjuguez*: p. 30. '*dancer*,' for *danser*: p. 38. '*une conturiere*,' for *une couturiere*: p. 57. '*bien dormé*,' for *bien dormi*: p. 65. '*avoir droite*,' for *avoir droit*: p. 77. '*couillir*,' for *cueillir*, &c. &c. — Some of the sentences are so incorrect, that we know not whether the blame of them should rest with the author or the printer; such are the following phrases, page 6., '*n'etoient ils pas obligeant*:' p. 63. '*comme le tems passé*,' for 'how time slips away;' and p. 77., '*plusieurs d'autres choses*.'

POETRY.

Art. 21. *The Battle of Salamanca*. A Poem. Second Edition. 4to. 2s. Walker. 1812.

We are told in the advertisement that this poem 'was begun and finished in four days;' at which statement we are so far surprized, that we should have considered four hours as an adequate portion of time for its composition. When it is added that 'it was immediately sent to the press, even without correction,' we can readily conceive this to have been the case. In truth it is a very tame and prosaic performance.

'It was most grateful to the soldier's ken,
To view the allies refrain in happiest hour,
Awhile from farther toil, and soon again
Marshal in firm array their gathered power;
Again, with vigorous arm, prepare to shower
Fresh vengeance on the foe, who, to the right
His force collects. The fates still heavier lower
O'er his fallen fortune; but with spirits light,
And hope of victory buoyed, he scorns to think of flight.'

Why trouble the public with such flat congratulations? Why offer Lord Wellington so unacceptable a present?

'Accept, famed Chief! the poet's grateful meed;
Again Madrid is free from Gallia's yoke,
Again by Tormes' stream, the shepherd's reed
Has with its dulcet strains the forest woke;
The proud usurping tyrant's power is broke.
Soon may thy troops the glorious work complete,
And wafted safely by their native oak,
On our loved island rest their weary feet,
And, with exulting hearts, loves, friends, and kindred greet.'

'*Has woke*' and '*is broke*' are worthy rhymes. 'Valladolid's spires' (the accent on the penultima) may be very correctly introduced: but we fear that Spanish co-operation will be increased in

t of the Peninsula by this new English Tyrtæus; and we grieve ık of the less-flattering prospect of affairs in Spain which has d to our view even since his lines were written, and that one of may now be altered to

Again Madrid *submits to* Gallia's yoke.

22. *The Nature of Man:* a Didactic Epistolary Poem. By Author of "The Conduct of Man." In the course of this m an Attempt is made to oppose the Epicurean System of Self-ve. 8vo. 5s. Boards. Chapple. 1812.

e system of self-love is, alas! not only Epicurean: otherwise, l it be possible, in the year 1812, for the author of "The Conduct n" (admonished as he was on the publication of that inexpli-farrago of muddy metaphysics,) to reproduce its dull absurdities 'he Nature of Man?' Were we not perfectly aware that some ıpers in literature are incurable, we should have entertained of the silence of this exclamatory versifier, after the just mea-of criticism which has been dealt out to him: but no—he *will* ard by his friends; and therefore, let him talk himself out of ı to them: we shall not consider ourselves obliged to listen to gain; for, as he says, page 90.,

—— 'I fear you've wasted time,
In having listen'd to my *lifeless* rhyme!'

— — — — — — — —

'Love! love! O love! celestial passion! pure!
With world coeval! and with world t'endure!' Page 1.

— — — — — — — —

'To *sim'lar* natures *sim'lar* senses dealt
In all alike, by *sense re-actings felt*
When other creatures in their feelings show
Symptoms of pleasure, or the signs of woe.
'Tis this affection sympathy defines.
Round Nature's texture this fine power entwines,
Mankind inducing to promote the joy
Of fellow-creatures, or ease pain's alloy.'

"*Tribus Anticyris caput insanabile!*"

23. *Poems*, on a Variety of Subjects. By the Miss Watkins' Stoke Lane, Somersetshire. 12mo. 4s. Boards. Robinson. 12.

ıe title of this volume is so far inapplicable, that we have seldom rith a collection of verses which afforded less *variety*. None of ɔems are above mediocrity, and those which are written in blank fall considerably below that character. In page 67. we find a natical inaccuracy formally excused on the score of poetic e: in page 104. the writer talks rather unintelligibly about :tred fays;' and in page 131., '*Louis Caput*' is an erroneous ıg which should have been corrected among the errata.

24. *Tributary Stanzas of affectionate Regard to the Memory of* ı. *Dawson*, Esq. of Liverpool; Captain of his Majesty's Ship Piedmontaise;

Piedmontaise; who lately died in the East Indies, in the twenty-ninth Year of his Age. By Lawrence Halloran, D. D., late Chaplain to H. M. Naval and Military Forces, and Rector of the Public Grammar School at the Cape of Good Hope. 4to. 1s. 6d. Stockdale. 1812.

"*Slow* flows the verse that real grief inspires;" and Dr. Halloran certainly seems much attached to the memory of Captain Dawson. Considered as a poem, however, it is but a moderate composition which here attracts our notice. Perhaps the first and last stanzas are the most favourable specimens which we can select:

'Heard ye the muffled drums repeat
Their solemn dirge on Ganges shore?
Heard ye,—through Britain's mourning fleet,
Th' artillery spread its measur'd roar?
Saw ye yon sorrowing group attend
Of British chiefs, and seamen brave?
Saw ye the genuine mourners bend,
In silent anguish o'er the grave?
The grave,—to which their pious rites resign
A hero's faded form,—his soul-deserted shrine?'

Again,

'And, lo! my friend! what prospects rise;—
Scenes,—where perennial glories bloom,
Th' ethereal fields of Paradise,
Spread—in glad view—beyond the tomb!
There patriots, saints, and heroes meet;—
The wise, the valiant, and the good
There ever hold their peaceful seat,
In endless bliss, and youth renew'd:—
And, while to *him* the muse this tribute gives,
There, too, thy Dawson blooms—his gallant spirit lives!'

Such a tribute of affection must be very welcome to the friends of the departed: but why give publicity to private consolations, which do not, we think, possess sufficient charm of expression to render their subject universally interesting? However, we must confess that our task of criticism would be much more agreeable, if we had often as little to censure as in the brief effusion before us.—If the Doctor writes again in verse, we would, indeed, admonish him not to accent the word 'archives' on the last, and 'perspective' on the first syllable; nor to introduce such repeated dashes as substitutes for punctuation.

Art. 25. *The Test of Virtue*, and other Poems. By the late Miss P. Barrell, Author of "Riches and Poverty, a Tale." 12mo. 7s. Boards. Chapple. 1811.

These poems display some fancy and originality, but the versification is inharmonious, and the same thoughts and images are too frequently repeated.

Art. 26. *Poems.* By Whiston Bristow. 8vo. 6s. Boards. Richardson. 1811.

om the list of subscribers prefixed to this volume, it is evident he author has a great many friends. We cannot help regret-therefore, that he should not have been contented to restrict the al of his verses to that circle, in which he might have been sure ding no discouragement, rather than offer them to the tribunal blic criticism, where it is impossible that he should meet with indulgent treatment. In truth, they are of that puerile descrip-which in manuscript and at the tea-table often escapes detection, hich is sure to be found out in print. However, as it is pro- that the encouragement which this work has experienced may e the author to publish again, it may not be amiss to make r obervations, to which it is desirable that he should attend. ; then, we beg to remark that '*Flowers*, *Bowers*,' &c. have, by ant and immemorial usage, become poetical monosyllables; and fore such lines as these,

'As thirsty flowers drink the evening dew'—

'Oh then to this bower together we'll steal'—

ot be tolerated; and it is no sort of compensation to cut down lets' into 'Vi'lets,' (which is a *vile* abbreviation,) 'Victory' into 'ry,' &c. In the next place, we must observe that ''tis thou sheds,' page 94., and 'thou for the grave has left a mother's it,' page 142., are not grammatical expressions; and, thirdly, 'I was seeking for her lover amid the storm,' page 83., and r to meet her lover in the raging deep,' p. 84., cannot, by any ing, be made into English verses of any description whatever.— think that the following song is the most free from faults of any is collection:

'SONG.

'Come, give this solemn musing o'er,
Enjoy the moment as it flies;
To wisdom's voice attend no more,
'Tis folly, folly to be wise!

'Come, drain the bowl, 'tis vain to cry
"The world is full of cares and strife;"
'Tis vain to think, to think and sigh,
And waste the sweetest hours of life.

'Oh! how I envy those who smile,
Whatever ills their path befall;
So wrapt, so lost in pleasure's wile,
They never, never think at all!

'While here we sit, and dream and muse,
Complain of life's unnumber'd woes;
Yet heedless how ourselves abuse
The stream of life that rapid flows.

'Then give to joy the harp's wild st
Fill high, fill high the sparkling bowl,
We'll fly from care with eagle wing,
Or whelm him with the whelming soul.

'Then

'Then give this solemn musing o'er,
Enjoy the moment as it flies;
To wisdom's voice attend no more,
'Tis folly, folly to be wise!'

We own that we see so little promise in this volume, that we most earnestly advise Mr. B. to occupy himself with any other pursuit than that of writing verses: but, at all events, he must take a great deal more pains with his poems, before he can hope that they will gain for him any reputation beyond the circle of his immediate friends.

NOVELS.

Art. 27. *The Castles of Wolfnorth and Monteagle.* By St. A——n. 12mo. 4 Vols. Boards. Hookham. 1812.

Three volumes of this romance are chiefly filled with the description of three tournaments, in which the armour and heraldic bearings of the knights, with the attire of the ladies, and the trappings of the horses, are detailed; and although these passages are better written than any in the work, they are tiresome from repetition, and ludicrous from the praises bestowed (Vol. i. p. 100.) on 'Sir Edwin's sweet eyes of a lively purple,' and (in p. 188.) on a conflict which 'was *elegantly* kept up, and *obtained* by a combatant who fought *exquisitely*.' —The Castles of Wolfnorth and Monteagle are full of perturbed spirits and mysterious monks, and the first and second chapters of the book open with a storm and two apparitions: but we doubt whether the injuries sustained by these poor ghosts, or those which are inflicted on their living descendants, are likely to awaken much interest in the reader.

Art. 28. *My own Times:* containing Information on the latest Fashions, the improved Morals, the virtuous Education, and the important Avocations of high Life. Taken from the best Authorities, and dedicated without Permission to those who will understand it. 12mo. 2 Vols. 12s. Boards. Longman and Co. 1812.

In this novel, the characters are faintly drawn; the style is languid and inelegant; and the author's zeal for reformation will be rendered unavailing by the triteness of his observations, and the want of resemblance in his attempts at painting the errors of fashionable manners.

Art. 29. *Rose and Emily*, or Sketches of Youth. By Mrs. Roberts, Author of "Moral Views, or the Telescope for Children." 12mo. 5s. 6d. Boards. Longman and Co. 1812.

The general style of this work is easy and unaffected; the characters are well discriminated and contrasted; the 'History of a faded Beauty' is impressive; and the whole publication is moral and attractive.

Art. 30. *The History of Myself and my Friend.* By Ann Plumptre. 12mo. 4 Vols. 1l. 8s. Boards. Colburn. 1813.

Miss Plumptre's composition is neither good nor bad, and her story is neither tragic nor comic; we wish we could add that it is neither long nor short: but the author seems to have been perfectly at leisure,

leisure, and to have expected that the reader should be equally *disengaged.* Every circumstance and idea are detailed at full length, and many conversations are related which are not amusing in themselves, nor conducive to the developement of the plot. In vol. ii. chap. 11., however, a fair *cut* is made at *Gentlemen Coachmen*, and *Lady Whips;* and the interest rises in the last volume, which contains some natural and well-drawn scenes. The work has also an useful tendency, as it exemplifies the evils arising from concealment and want of confidence among friends.

MISCELLANEOUS.

Art. 31. *Guy's Pocket Cyclopædia*, or Miscellany of useful Knowledge, from the best Authorities; designed for senior Classes in Schools, and for Young Persons in general; containing much useful Information on various Subjects, necessary to be known by all Persons, yet not to be found in Books of general Use in Schools. By Joseph Guy, Professor of Geography, &c., Great Marlow. Author of the New British Spelling Book, School Geography, Chart of General History, British Reader, &c. Fifth Edition. Considerably augmented and improved. Small 8vo. pp. 530. 7s. Boards. Cradock and Joy, &c.

We learn from an advertisement that, in the third edition of this performance, the title page was altered by the printer, without the compiler's knowlege, from *Miscellaneous Selections*, &c. to the *Pocket Cyclopædia*, &c., and that, 'generally useful as this book may appear, it was never designed fully to answer a title that is calculated first to excite and then to mock curiosity. Its being now become publicly known by that name, is the only reason for retaining it.' When we took the liberty of animadverting on a former edition of this compendious view of knowlege, we were unapprized of certain circumstances connected with its publication, and of which the cognizance belongs to a different tribunal from that of criticism: but we have now to say that, although Mr. Guy has still overlooked a few of our hints and suggestions, his book bears evident symptoms of revision, and is, on the whole, greatly improved. His abridged statements of some of the most important processes in arts and manufactures, in particular, are ably-digested: but his explanations of the different departments of science will probably be deemed less satisfactory. His account of the powers and operations of the human mind is neither clear nor always consistent. Thus, under *perception*, we are told that, 'when we hear of a thing *whereof* no image can be framed, the idea we then have is a mere perception.' We would ask, can we have a perception of any thing of which no image can be framed? Again; 'the power of perception constitutes what we call the understanding:' but, on turning to the article *understanding*, we are not less puzzled when we are informed that 'it is used as a general term to direct all the faculties of the human mind.' Nearly in the same breath, we are reminded that it has nothing to do with the immediate objects of sense: but, if so, wherefore identify it with perception?

At page 110. is an odd jumble of *alumin* [alumine] and *alum*; though the former, it must be confessed, is dismissed with the smallest

smallest share of explanation. The definition of a *frigate* clashes with that of ships of the line, as we noted some time ago with reference to the same article in the rival publication of Mr. Millard; and a similar remark applies to the alleged *existing* purity of Calvinism at Geneva. The brief exposition of the different religious sects is, however, drawn up with fairness and ability.

In the event of another impression, we would advise Mr. Guy to follow the example of his competitor, by subjoining to each article a list of the most eminent writers who have treated of it at greater length.—Yet, whatever may be the blemishes or omissions in the present volume, we can no longer hesitate to recommend it to the notice of discreet tutors and schoolmasters; and, although we cannot venture absolutely to pronounce it 'one of the most universally useful things in the whole world,' we are of opinion that it reflects considerable credit on the industry and knowlege of its compiler.

Art. 32. *Remarks on a Bill for the better regulating and preserving Parish and other Registers.* Addressed to the Right Rev. the Lord Bishop of Sarum. By the Rev. Charles Daubeny, L.L.B., Archdeacon of Sarum. 8vo. 1s. Rivingtons.

Art. 33. *Remarks on the Bill for the Regulation of Parochial Registers*, &c. Most humbly submitted to the Members of both Houses of Parliament. Crown 8vo. 1s. Hatchard. 1812.

It can be no matter of surprise that the clergy should oppose the bill which is here the subject of remark, not only because they are treated very disrespectfully in it, but also because the 70th canon makes better provisions for keeping and preserving Parish-Registers than those which are furnished by the bill now submitted to the legislature. Mr. Daubeny's remarks appear to be judicious throughout; and if he expresses some displeasure at a scheme in which it is proposed to oblige the clergy to verify their Parish Registers *on oath* before a civil officer, while from Dissenting Ministers no oath before a magistrate is required, he will be readily pardoned; because, if such regulations were suffered to become law, the clergy would feel themselves degraded. Mr. D. protests *in toto* against the proposition for taking the clergy from under the jurisdiction of the bishop, to which they constitutionally belong, and making them accountable in the first instance to the civil power, for the discharge of a part at least of their ecclesiastical duty. In other respects, the Archdeacon reprobates the operation of the bill; and, in some of the points which he enumerates, he is supported by his brother remarker. The plan suggested in the proposed bill would be expensive, without being an improvement on the old practice. If we take into consideration the substantial objections which lie against the Parochial Register-Bill, in its present form, it may be presumed that it cannot pass both Houses without undergoing great alterations. Means may be provided for the better keeping of parish-registers, without a total alteration of the old system. The anonymous remarker thinks that a more arbitrary attempt was never made to perplex and annoy the parochial clergy than that which occurs in this bill.

CORRES-

CORRESPONDENCE.

We have duly considered the long letter from Dr. Gregory, of the Royal Military Academy, Woolwich, in which he complains of 'misrepresentations' in our account of his "Letters on the Evidences of the Christian Religion." (See our last Number.) He observes, 1st, 'I do *not* wish to set myself up as "an interpreter of Scripture," in the invidious sense which the language of the Reviewer implies; nor do I, in the like invidious sense, think it of *little* consequence to produce a sincere conviction of the truth of the Christian Religion, unless at the same time I can engraft *my own creed* on that conviction.' We are glad to find Dr. G. making this acknowledgment: but we must add that the first part of the paragraph which we quoted justified our comment, since he there expressly says that 'Christianity, apart from its *distinguishing doctrines*,' (all know the meaning of this phrase,) 'can have no firm hold on the heart.' (Vol. ii. p. 14. first edition.) If the belief of the divinity of Christ's mission, and of the sacred origin of the Christian Scriptures, 'can have no firm hold on the heart,' unless the belief of what the Calvinists call the *distinguishing* doctrines of the Gospel (while others cannot distinguish any traces of these doctrines in it) be superadded, the author must think as we have made him think in the above quoted passage. We did not consider it as necessary to quote the whole paragraph, because, though the display of such authorities as Dr. G. adduces is very fair in oratory, philosophers know that numbers make not the test of truth.

2dly, Dr. G. says, 'I have no where affirmed, that "all who are not moderately orthodox are pure Deists;" but I have stated my belief, and have endeavoured to evince, that there is no intermediate *tenable* ground *in argument* between pure deism and moderate orthodoxy.' Now, if no intermediate ground can be occupied *in fair argument* between deism and moderate orthodoxy, must not all men who can argue belong either to the one or the other of these stations? Dr. G. may disclaim the reviewer's inference, but it would puzzle a philosopher to draw it of a different aspect.

3dly, It is stated by Dr. G. that 'he has not attempted "to explain," or even to give an idea of the mystery of the Holy Trinity;' and he farther complains of partial quotation. In reference to the mysterious nature of the Divine Being, Dr. G. makes the remark which we quoted; and can he say that it was not meant, as we stated, to convey some faint idea of the Trinity, though, indeed, the term does not occur? To what doctrine could he refer the words, '*they constitute not three souls, but one soul?*' Let him own his indiscretion like a man, but let him not say that he "does well to be angry."

4thly, Observes Dr. G. 'I disclaim the sentiments you ascribe to me on the subject of Future Punishment.' We are very glad to hear this: but let us turn to the record, and see whether our statement can be substantiated by matter contained in Dr. Gregory's 21st letter. "They," says he, "who oppose the doctrine of *the eternal suffering of bad men after death*, have recourse to a variety of arguments, which may be reduced to three." These three he examines, but he does not admit their force. He distinctly replies to the objection of Dr. Hartley, drawn from the consideration that, on the doctrine of eternal punishments, "*far the greater part of mankind are condemned to infinite misery*:" but how does he get rid of this objection? By desiring us to recollect that at least *half* the children which are born die before they are seven years old, "and are doubtless happy in a future world;" and that "those of the Heathen, "who do by nature the things contained in the law," will be admitted to bliss for the Redeemer's sake," &c. We confess that we did not advert to the case of infants: but, on Dr. G.'s account of the matter, the

nascentes

nascentes moriuntur are to be envied; and the preservation of life, to encounter the fearful risk of a probationary state, is to be deprecated. Let him, however, take notice that we object not only to the position which asserts that the *majority* of human beings are to be made eternally miserable: but we maintain that it is inconsistent with the justice (to say nothing of the mercy) of God, that the failings of an imperfect being in an imperfect world should be punished with never-ending torments. He seems to think that he has shielded himself from animadversion by observing, "there will not remain the *shadow* of a suspicion that the *greater* part of mankind will be eternally miserable:" but, because the *greater* part are not to be eternally miserable, are we not to protest against the *minority* "being salted with fire?" Farther, he remarks, "the higher the threatening runs, so much the more mercy and goodness there is in it." (Vol. ii. p. 253. first edition.) The question, however, does not respect the "running of the threatening," but the actual infliction of eternal fire. It is true that he observes just before, "that the primary end of all threatenings is not punishment, but the *prevention* of it;" yet this just observation will not apply to his case, since he represents punishments to be so inflicted, even under the perfect government of the Divine Being, that they cannot be *preventive*, but proceed in infinite progression, and must, therefore, be chosen for their own sake.

If we were at our final audit, we could put our hands on our hearts, and declare, without fear of being contradicted by the Searcher of hearts, that we had no motive or wish to misrepresent Dr. Gregory; and having, to the best of our abilities, calmly examined his allegations, we are fully convinced that we *have not* misrepresented him. We respect his talents and his zeal for religious truth: but let him not be offended if we say that we cannot regard his reasoning as always sound; and we are persuaded that, when hereafter he consults his night-cap, he will be more inclined to thank than to censure us, for our conscientious and impartial strictures. When the philosopher "comes to himself," he will blot much of what he has written; and then we shall class his work among the valuable defences of the Christian religion.

In our Number for August, we took notice of a short grammar by Mr. St. Quentin, which we called 'meagre and defective,' as short grammars must be. The author having also recommended various playthings, resembling those of the Abbé Gaultier, we objected to the system of teaching *by play*. Man, throughout life, is obliged to coerce his application, and to earn his bread by an unwelcome toil; the sooner, therefore, a child is accustomed to such discipline, the better.

Against this verdict, Mr. St. Quentin appeals, in a good-humoured letter, which, however, is longer than it suits us to insert: but we are well disposed and perfectly ready to state that it sets us right in one particular, by declaring that the metaphysical lecture contained in the preface, which we allowed to be good, is entirely Mr. St. Quentin's own. We apprehended that it was a quotation: we still think that it is the best part of the book; and we are happy to "render to Cæsar the things which are Cæsar's."

The packet from F. is received.

THE
MONTHLY REVIEW,
For DECEMBER, 1812.

ART. I. *History of Brazil.* By Robert Southey. Part the First. 4to. pp. 659. 2l. 2s. Boards. Longman and Co.

WE regret that the multiplied demands on our time have prevented us from bestowing earlier attention on this historical work by Mr. Southey, of which the continuation has lately been announced to be in forwardness. Whether that gentleman will consider it as a compliment or not, we have no hesitation in saying that we like him much better as an historian than as a poet; and though we do not altogether agree with him respecting the mode of writing history, we are well aware of the value which ought to be attached to his extensive erudition and indefatigable spirit of research: qualities which, however unpopular may be the form of a book, enable an author to render a lasting service to the cause of truth, and to lay the basis of at least an eventual reputation. A history of Brazil is not, indeed, the subject to which we should have wished the labour of a trust-worthy historian to have been, by preference, directed, since much that it more nearly concerns us to know remains unexplored: but we were, on second thoughts, reconciled to this application of Mr. Southey's time, by a consideration of the aptitude for the task which he had acquired by a residence in Portugal, and a predilection for the history of that country.

The plan of this narrative is not strictly confined to Brazil, but Mr. S. relates also the foundation and progress of the adjacent Spanish provinces, so that the country described may be said to reach all the way from the river Amazons to that of la Plata; and hence arises the introduction of the navigation of the former river by the Spanish adventurers, which forms one of the most interesting topics in the book. The period comprehended in this first volume completely extends from the early part of the 16th century to the year 1640, the epoch of the reinstatement of the house of Braganza on the throne of Portugal. The successive and gradually increasing establishments of the Portuguese in Brazil owed their origin chiefly to the exertion of individuals; and, stimulated as the latter were by avarice

and ambition, their conduct had perhaps less mischievous influence than that of their government, who seemed to interfere only to sow the seeds of dis-union between the settlers and the natives: which was effected in two ways; first, by sending abroad convicted delinquents as colonists; and afterward, when the country appeared more important, by giving encouragement, on an impolitic plan, to adventurers of rank. This plan consisted in forming the unoccupied territory into provinces, under the name of Captaincies; each of which was committed to the hereditary government of the nobleman who undertook to conquer and settle it: but the scheme proved in several instances unsuccessful, and in others a source of oppression, so that it became necessary to recall the authority of these provincial rulers, and to subject the whole of Brazil to the controul of one governor. With regard to interference from the side of Europe with the Portuguese possession of Brazil, the first intruders were French Huguenots: but their attempts were of little moment when compared with the direct hostility of the Dutch, who considered themselves as justified in assailing Brazil, after the mother-country had passed, in 1580, under the dominion of their mortal enemy, Philip II. The attacks of the Dutch on Brazil were of very long duration; and here the materials for a history of that country are to be found in greater number than either before or since. It was not till the recovery of Portuguese independence, in 1640, that the warfare with the Dutch was definitively closed.

From this outline, it appears that the present publication comprehends somewhat less than half of the time during which Brazil has been a colony; so that ample matter remains for an additional volume. Of its nature as an historical subject, our readers may form their opinion from Mr. Southey's preamble:

'The history of Brazil is less beautiful than that of the mother country, and less splendid than that of the Portugueze in Asia; but it is not less important than either. Its materials differ from those of other histories: here are no tangles of crooked policy to unravel, no mysteries of state-iniquity to elucidate, no revolutions to record, nor victories to celebrate, the fame of which remains among us long after their effects have past away. Discovered by chance, and long left to chance, it is by individual industry and enterprize, and by the operation of the common laws of nature and society, that this empire has risen and flourished, extensive as it now is, and mighty as it must one day become. In the course of its annals, disgust and anger will oftener be felt than those exalted feelings which it is more grateful for the historian to excite. I have to speak of savages so barbarous that little sympathy can be felt for any sufferings which they endured, and of colonists in whose triumphs no joy will be taken, because they added

lded avarice to barbarity; . . ignoble men, carrying on an obscure arfare, the consequences of which have been greater than were pro-ıced by the conquests of Alexander or Charlemagne, and will be r more lasting. Even the few higher characters which appear have ɔtained no fame beyond the limits of their own religion, scarcely ɔyond those of their language. Yet has the subject its advantages: ɛ discovery of extensive regions; the manners and superstitions of ɑcivilized tribes; the efforts of missionaries, in whom zeal the most ınatical was directed by the coolest policy; the rise and the over-ırow of the extraordinary dominion which they established; and the ɔgress of Brazil from its feeble beginnings, to the importance hich it now possesses, these are topics of no ordinary interest.'

We select the expedition down the river Amazons, as illus-ative equally of Mr. Southey's mode of composition and of e perils which were encountered by the adventurers of those ys, in quest of golden regions. — Though lately settled in ɛru, the Spaniards were far from being satisfied; and those ɔo had newly arrived were impatient to rival the fortune of ɛir predecessors.

'When Pizarro had secured, as he imagined, the authority of his ɱily in Peru, by the execution of his old friend and comrade and ɱefactor, Almagro, he gave the government of Quito to his brother ɔnzalo, a man even more bloody and more infamous in history than ɱself. Eastward of that city there was said to be a rich country, ɩich abounded with cinnamon; and Gonzalo, as soon as he reached ɨ government, prepared to take possession of this land of spice, and ɛn proceed and conquer El Dorado. There was no lack of adven-ɾers for such an enterprize. He set out with about two hundred ɔt-soldiers, one hundred horse, four thousand Indians, to be used beasts of burthen for the army, and about four thousand swine and ɾdian sheep.

'After many sufferings, he found the spice trees *; their produce ɛmbled the cinnamon of the East in taste, but was of inferior qua-ɣ; in shape it is described as like an acorn cup, but deeper, thicker, d of darker colour, approaching to black; they were in abundance, d those which were cultivated produced better spice than such as ɛw wild. The natives carried on a considerable trade in it with all ɛ adjoining country, exchanging it for provisions, and the few ɨcles of clothing which they used. They were a poor, unoffend-ɣ people, contented with little. Their poverty at once disappointed d provoked Gonzalo; he enquired of them if these trees grew in ɣ other country except their own. They replied that they did not, d this they knew because other tribes came to them for the pro-ɛe. But when he asked what countries lay beyond them, and they uld give no intelligence of El Dorado, the golden kingdom which

'* A missionary is at this time endeavouring to introduce the culture the cinnamon among the Indians of Manoa. *Mercurio Peruano.*' 153.

he coveted . . with the true spirit of a Pizarro, . . a name never to be uttered without abhorrence, . . he tortured them to extort a confession of what they did not know, and could have no motive to conceal, burnt some alive, and threw others alive to his dogs, . . blood-hounds, which were trained in this manner to feed upon human flesh!

'Gonzalo soon found the evil effects of his accursed cruelty. The tidings had spread from tribe to tribe, and when he enquired for the rich countries of which he was in search, the poor natives, not daring to contradict his hope, deluded him and sent him on.'

The march of the Spaniards was now one continued scene of suffering. It extended along the banks of the great river Coca, flowing to the eastward; and by way of lessening the labour of carrying the sick, they built, with great difficulty, a bark, to follow the course of the stream. This proved a considerable resource, but their hardships continued to be severe. They were told by the natives that, at the junction of this river with the Napo, between 200 and 300 miles farther on, they would come into a country of provisions: but this prospect of relief was remote, and famine already prevailed among them. They had been reduced to eat their war-dogs, and a thousand of the attendant Peruvians had already perished. Under this embarrassment, Gonzalo sent forwards Orellana, the second in command, in the bark, with 50 men, to the promised land of fertility at the point of junction, for the purpose of collecting provisions, and returning to meet the army. The river, being joined by many others, continued rapid in its course, and carried them to the point of conflux in three days: but here the country, like that which they had passed, was uncultivated, and even uninhabited. What, then, were they to do? to return against a strong current was scarcely possible; and, if they waited for the main body, they had no prospect but that of perishing through want. Orellana urged this powerful plea to his men, and had by that time conceived the adventurous hope of following this great river throughout the extent of the continent to the sea, in the view of becoming the authorized conqueror of the countries which he should discover.

With this idea he formally renounced the commission which he had received from Gonzalo Pizarro, and obtained the command anew from the election of his men. From the point at which they now were, they had, as it afterward proved, to perform a navigation of between 4000 and 5000 miles to the ocean.

'It was upon the last day of December 1541, that this voyage was begun, one of the most adventurous that has ever been enterprized. The little stock of provisions with which they had parted from the army was already exhausted, and they boiled their leathern girdles and

soles of their shoes with such herbs as seemed most eatable.
eighth of January, when they had almost given up all hope of
ey heard before day-light an Indian drum, . . a joyful sound,
the natives what they would, this they knew, that it must be
wn fault now if they should die of hunger. At day-break,
agerly upon the look-out, they perceived four canoes, which
k on seeing the brigantine; and presently they saw a village
great body of the natives were assembled, and ready to defend
he Spaniards were too hungry to negociate. Orellana bade
nd in good order and stand by each other; they attacked the
like men who were famishing and fought for food, put them
ly to the rout, and found an immediate supply. While they
njoying the fruits of their victory, the Indians took to their
and came near them, more to gratify curiosity than resent-
Orellana spake to them in some Indian language, which they
understood; some of them took courage, and approached him;
them a few European trifles, and asked for their chief, who
without hesitation, was well pleased with the presents which
iven him, and offered them any thing that it was in his power
ply. Provisions were requested, and presently peacocks, par-
, fish, and other things were brought in great abundance.
xt day thirteen chiefs came to see the strangers; they were
dorned with feathers and gold, and had plates of gold upon
ast. Orellana received them courteously, required them to
ledge obedience to the crown of Castille, took advantage as
f their ignorance to affirm that they consented, and amused
ith the ceremony of taking possession of their country in the
or's name.'

llana availed himself of the friendly disposition of the
, to make preparations for building an additional bark;
nstruction of which was completed at another friendly
several hundred miles down the river. As he proceeded,
accounts were given him of the Amazons, or female
rs, occupying the more advanced country. The banks
river were alternately cultivated and neglected. The
ce under the authority of a chief called Machiparo was
us, and opposed resistance to the Spaniards both in
and on the side of the river. In these conflicts, the
m object of the Spaniards was to aim at the Indian chief,
fall generally led to the flight of his men. Unfortu-
, it was so much the interest of Orellana to magnify the
of the region which he traversed, that little dependance
placed on his narrative; and on this account we must be
us in receiving his reports of seeing roads, streets, or
money, since the probability is that none of these tribes
ufficiently advanced for such accommodations.
the aspect of the country, the temper of the successive
ppeared to vary, a few only being gentle and hospitable.

At last the Spaniards sailed through the country of the Amazons, where the sight of a few women using the bow and arrow with the men, which was not an uncommon custom in America, was exaggerated into the proof of a female empire. The most remarkable circumstance, perhaps, in this long peregrination, was the judgment and ability of Orellana; who, without shrinking from danger when exposure was necessary, often exercised a controlling power over the impetuosity of his followers. Long before they reached the ocean, the river became so wide that one bank was not discernible from the other. Many stoppages took place, both to obtain provisions and for the repair of their frail barks; and it was not till the end of August, after eight months of navigation, that they put out to sea. Here they were exposed to new perils: but, being driven to the N.W., they reached, in the course of a fortnight, the island of Cubagua, situated W. by N. of Trinidad. Proceeding thence to Spain, Orellana reported his extensive discoveries, and easily obtained permission to return with an armed force and attempt the conquest of them: but the tide of his fortune was now turned. Sailing with men who were unused to the climate, and arriving in autumn, the worst of seasons in a hot country, his crews became enfeebled by destructive maladies; and the difficulty of finding the leading current in sailing up was infinitely beyond the idea which was suggested by their easy passage downward. The accomplishment of this laborious task was consequently reserved for a future adventurer; and fatigue and vexation on the part of Orellana having aggravated an illness brought on by the climate, he died on board a brigantine at the mouth of the great river.

'This,' says Mr. Southey, 'was the fate of Orellana, who as a discoverer surpassed all his countrymen; as a conqueror he was unfortunate, and the happier it now is for him. He burnt no Indians alive, nor threw them to the war-dogs; and perhaps at his hour of death thanked God that success had never put it in his power to commit these atrocities, from which I do not believe that any one of the conquerors can be acquitted. The great river which he explored was formerly called after his name, and is marked by it in old maps. By that name I shall distinguish it, because its appellation from the Amazons is founded upon fiction, and is inconvenient; and its other name would occasion some confusion, belonging equally to the state of Maranham, and the island wherein the capital of that state is situated. These are sufficient reasons for preferring the name of Orellana, even if there were not a satisfaction in rendering justice to his memory, by thus restoring to him his well-deserved honour.'

Towards the end of the volume, the author enters more at length into the curious inquiry regarding the existence of a

rate tribe of women under the description of Amazons. s on the whole by no means inclined to deny the possibility ch a fact, and lays stress not on the testimony of Orellana is associates, but on the more accurate and candid relation cuña. That traveller was brother of the corregidor of Quito, sailed down the great river nearly a century after Orellana, in 1639. During his whole voyage, he made inquiry erning the reality of the Amazons: no person was igno- that such a nation existed; and he found a general agree- t in the account of their manners. "It is not to be be- d," says Acuña, "that the same lie should be circulated ng so many different tribes." From the Tupinambas, an an nation inhabiting a central region of the wide continent ugh which the river flows, Acuña received more definite rmation:

Six and thirty leagues below the last settlement of the Tupin- s, and on the north, is the mouth of the Cunuris, a river so d, from the first tribe upon its banks. Beyond them were the ntos, then the Taguaus, and then the Guacaras; these last were eople with whom the Amazons traded, and carried on that in- urse, without which they must else have become extinct. The caras went once a year into their country, which was full of ntains. The Amazons, as soon as they saw them coming up the went arms in hand to meet them; but as soon as they were ied that it was their friends, they entered their canoes, and each g up the first hammock which she found, carried it to her dwell- and hung it up there, and the Guacara to whom it belonged, her mate for the season. One Indian, who said, that in his boy- he had been with his father on one of these expeditions, affirmed when the men returned, they took with them all the boys of the eding year; but it was generally asserted that they were put to h as soon as born.'

Condamine, sailing down the river a century afterward 743, omitted no opportunity of similar inquiries, and heard port from the various tribes that these women had several s before retired up the country by the Rio Negro. All se relations concur in placing the Amazons in the heart of iana, the only part of South America which Europeans have er explored; and Condamine, though doubtful of their stence at that time, thought it was very probable that such ation had once flourished:

The existence of such a tribe,' says Mr. Southey, 'could it be ertained, would be honourable to our species, inasmuch as it must e originated in resistance to oppression. The lot of women is ally dreadful among savages; the females of one horde may have petrated what the Danaides are said to have done before them, but n a stronger provocation; and if, as is not unfrequent, they had

been accustomed to accompany their husbands to battle, there is nothing that can even be thought improbable, in their establishing themselves as an independent race, and securing, by such a system of life, that freedom for their daughters, which they had obtained for themselves. Had we never heard of the Amazons of antiquity, I should, without hesitation, believe in those of America; their existence is not the less likely for that reason, and yet it must be admitted that the probable truth is made to appear suspicious by its resemblance to a known fable.'

We have seen, in the progress of Gonzalo Pizarro, an example of the perpetual currency of reports of golden regions at a distance; and the Spaniards, who in a future age succeeded in penetrating to these boasted territories, were amused with similar rumours concerning Peru. Wherever they went, indeed, they seldom failed to hear a report of some imaginary kingdom of great wealth. Among the most extravagant of these tales, may be reckoned the fictitious kingdom of El Dorado, or the "gilded sovereign;" a barbarian chief, whose palace, watered by a silver fountain, and adorned by a golden sun, was said to stand in a magnificent island, while he himself was daily anointed with a fragrant gum, and covered with gold dust. This was the fiction of which Sir Walter Raleigh made use as a bait for vulgar cupidity, to promote his favourite project of colonizing Guiana. Of all such stories, however, the most impudent was that of a Spanish impostor; who related at Lima that he had been in the city of Manoa, the capital of a mighty emperor, whose palace had columns of porphyry and alabaster, galleries of ebony and cedar, and a throne of ivory, ascended by steps of gold. He even produced a map of the country, containing three hills, one of salt, another of silver, and a third of gold.

The manners of the native savages of Brazil are drawn by Mr. Southey in all their native deformity in the history of Hans Stade, a German, and one of the persons who were deluded into a dangerous expedition by false reports of the riches of Paraguay. Having suffered shipwreck at the island of St. Vicente, he was taken prisoner by the savages on an excursion into the country:

'Their first business was to strip him; hat, cloak, jerkin, shirt, were presently torn away, every one seizing what he could get. To this part of the prize possession was sufficient title; but Hans's body, or carcase, as they considered it, was a thing of more consequence. A dispute arose who had first laid hands on him, and they who bore no part in it amused themselves by beating the prisoner with their bows. It was settled that he belonged to two brethren; then they lifted him up and carried him off as fast as possible towards their canoes, which were drawn ashore, and concealed in the thicket. A large

A large party who had been left in guard advanced to meet their triumphant fellows, showing Hans their teeth, and biting their arms to let him see what he was to expect. They then tied his hands; but another dispute arose, what should be done with him. The captors were not all from the same dwelling place; no other prisoner had been taken, and they who were to return home without one, exclaimed against giving him to the two brethren, and were for killing him at once. Poor Hans had lived long enough in Brazil to understand all that was said, and all that was to be done; he fervently said his prayers, and kept his eye upon the slaughter club. The chief of the party settled the dispute by saying, We will carry him home alive, that our wives may rejoice over him, and he shall be made a *Kaawy-pepike;* that is, he was to be killed at the great drinking feast.—On the third evening they came to their town, which was called Uwattibi. It consisted of seven houses, . . a town seldom had more, but each house contained twenty or thirty families, who, as they were generally related to each other, may not improperly be called a clan.

'When the canoes arrived, the women were digging mandioc. The captors made Hans cry out to them in Brazilian, Here I am, come to be your meat! Out came the whole population, old men, children and all. Hans was delivered over to the women, who were if possible more cruel than the men on these occasions. They beat him with their fists, they pulled his beard, naming at every pluck and at every blow, some one of their friends who had been slain, and saying it was given for his sake.'

It was in vain that the unfortunate prisoner availed himself of his knowlege of the Brazilian language to plead that he was not a Portuguese but a German, the neighbour and friend of Frenchmen; the French having been in the habit of trading peaceably with the savages, and not having, like the Portuguese, become obnoxious to them by the commission of violence. Before the arrival of the day appointed for the inhuman feast, a Frenchman happened to come for the purpose of traffic to this quarter; and the savages hastened to bring their prisoner, in order to ascertain the truth of his assertion: but his incapacity to answer in the French language was accounted decisive against him. His fate would now have been beyond redemption, had not he managed to ascribe to the anger of his God a sickness which befell one of the chiefs, and to declare his recovery impracticable unless the design of slaying him (Hans Stade) was renounced. The chief recovered, and the life of Hans was saved. He was still detained, however, in the hope of a large ransom, and had ample opportunity of observing the disgusting manners of these cannibals. Mr. Southey has devoted more than twenty pages to this revolting subject: but we shall be satisfied with extracting one passage explanatory of the treatment of prisoners by the savages. A chief, called Konyan

Konyan Bebe, had defeated a hostile tribe, and taken several of them prisoners, with some Christians:

'Hans Stade went into Konyan Bebe's tent, and asked him what he designed to do with the Christians: . . to eat them, was the answer; . . they were fools to come with our enemies when they might have remained at home; . . and he forbade Hans to have any intercourse with them. Hans advised him to ransom them; this he refused.

'Konyan Bebe gave order in the evening that all the prisoners should be produced. The captors formed a circle on a level piece of ground between the woods and the river, and placed them in the midst. When this was over, the Tupiniquins said, we came from our land like brave men, to attack ye our enemies, and kill ye and devour ye: the victory has been yours, and you have us in your hands. We care not; . . brave men die valiantly in the land of their enemies. Our country is wide, and it is inhabited by warriors who will not let our deaths go unrevenged. The others made answer, You have taken and devoured many of our people, and now we will revenge them upon you.'

It is some satisfaction to learn that Hans was at length ransomed, and returned to his own country; where he wrote a history of his adventures, which is a book of great value.

Our readers will by this time be enabled to form an idea of Mr. Southey's peculiar manner of writing history. His plan is to be sparing of general reflections, and to relate with scrupulous accuracy and minuteness the occurrence of detached events, observing generally the order of their date. The remarks which he permits himself to make are only those which arise out of the subject of the narrative; a course which is very different from that of the writers who concentrate a body of facts for the illustration of a previously-conceived doctrine. On their plan it may be said that the narrative seems to be written for the reflections; and on that of Mr. Southey, that we have facts with scarcely any reflections interspersed. A similar remark was made by us (Vol. lxiv. p. 465.) on the writer, whoever he be, of the "*Memoirs of Prince Eugene.*" — Mr. Southey's plan is confirmed in great measure by the authority of the antients, and among ourselves by the recent example of Mr. Fox. Without entering into any general discussion of the best mode of writing history, we must say that Mr. Southey has gone greatly too far into particular detail for the taste of the present generation: which expects something more than a succession of objects and occurrences, clearly and specifically described, but not brought together so as to produce effect by combination. The reader who turns over Mr. Southey's pages, in quest of dazzling description, will experience nearly such a disappointment as the ardent admirer of war would find on exchanging the flattering picture of a campaign

drawn by a writer who lets loose his imagination, for unadorned journal of a professional eye-witness. ffer, however, from the prevailing taste, and are dis- look with favourable prepossession on the writer who inting, and brings truth and reality in the plainest garb e eyes of his readers. Yet, while we admire the plan, d its successful execution as the true province of taste is, we are not prepared to say that Mr. Southey's per- is in complete correspondence with the dignity of his n. The magnitude of the volume, and the variety of , naturally suggest the charge of prolixity; a charge pears to be better founded with respect to multiplicity of nces than to their lengthened description. Few re more remote from danger of trespassing by the use ning epithets; on this score, therefore, Mr. Southey alled a concise writer: but, in looking to prolixity in ense,—we mean an accumulation of circumstances,— fferent conclusion must be drawn. True it is that, pen of so diligent an investigator, we may safely rely delity of the enumerated particulars; and it is equally all of them may be considered as conducing, in some o the illustration of the history and manners of the whom he describes: but the mass is too large: its too multiform. If the extent of the historian's re- ght to be such as to know no other limit than the authentic materials, the exposition of his stores to the to be guided by a very different rule. The majority s expect a writer to judge as well as to investigate for nd they will be satisfied to find collateral details sub- the notes, or cited in the margin, while in the text only for such a selection of circumstances as may give them a clear conception of leading facts and istics.

se observations, we add an extract of a few lines from hey's work, which contain a remark very useful in d calculated to serve as a specimen of those general ich we should have been glad to have seen more fre- ntroduced. Speaking of the fabulous miracles which the records of Catholic missionaries, he adds, with to the authorities for American annals:

e is this wide difference between civil and ecclesiastical ; . . the former narrate those events most fully which have their own times, and later writers always have to condense ials left them by their predecessors; . . the latter enlarge on, and the last writer is uniformly the most copious, be- y one adds his lie to the heap.'

The

The river Amazons, or, to adopt Mr. Southey's name, the Orellana, is an object of such magnitude, and a voyage down its course presented such extended views of Indian manners, that we turn by preference to those passages in the book which are appropriated to this topic:

'From the sea to the Rio Negro, the depth in the main channel is no where less than thirty fathom; higher up, it varies from twenty to twelve, and even near to its source, according to Acuña, it is not less than eight. The islands which it forms are too many ever to have been numbered, and of all sizes, very many of four or five leagues in circumference, not a few of ten and twenty, and the great island of the Tupinambas exceeding a hundred. Many of the smaller islands were cultivated by those who inhabited the nearest large ones; and being sometimes inundated, they are remarkably fertile.

'Maize and mandioc were the principal vegetable food of the inhabitants; this latter they secured against the regular floods, by burying it in deep pits, so well covered, as to keep out the water. The same root supplied them with their liquor; they formed the flour into thin biscuits, which they kept in the highest part of their dwellings, to be as far from the damp as possible; these they boiled in water, and left to ferment, using it as beverage on all occasions. There was a drinking bout at sowing or setting time, another at harvest; when a guest arrived, this was his welcome; if they rejoiced, they got drunk, and they got drunk if they were sorrowful. Other fermented liquors they made of various wild fruits, and kept them in earthen jars of great capacity, or in wood hollowed into vessels, or in large baskets, knit so closely of fine materials, and caulked so well with gum, as to be effectually water-tight.'—

'Acuña's was indeed a delightful voyage; the natives on the way had been previously conciliated, and the force with him was sufficient to remove all fear or apprehension whatever. If one boat was injured or upset, there were others at hand to render assistance. His course also was with the stream. Had he written of the voyage up he would have had to speak of labyrinthine channels, of strong currents, and of a plague of insects, from which there is no respite, neither by night nor day. In descending the stream, the evil is escaped; boats keep the mid current, and these insects do not venture far from the shore.'—

'The common weapon of the savages was the throwing-stick, called *estolica*, which was used by the Peruvians. It is described as flat, between four and five feet long, and three fingers broad; at the end a bone rest was fixed; against this, they took such certain aim, that if a tortoise put forth his head, they could instantly transfix it. The bow and arrow, however, were more formidable arms. Some used shields of closely platted cane. Their canoes were of cedar, and the river saved them all trouble of felling timber for them. Torn up by the floods, these huge trees came floating down the stream, and the Indian had only to cast a hook upon one, as it was drifting along, and fasten it to his hut, till the waters abated, and left it dry. Tortoise-shell served for hatchets;

the strongest part of the shell, which is what may be described as being between the shoulders, was used as the blade; a jaw bone of the manatee served for handle, and with such tools as these, they made tables, seats, and other things, as well as if they had employed the best iron instruments, though not as easily. Some tribes had stone axes, which did the work more expeditiously. The teeth and tusks of animals served them for chissels, planes, and wimbles.'—

'Every where they had their conjurors: there is no stage of society, in which some persons are not found, artful enough to prey upon the credulity of others. — In general, the tribes upon the Orellana were less dark of complexion than the Brazilian nations. They were well made and of good stature, of quick understanding, docile, and disposed to receive any instruction from their guests, and render them any assistance.'

Similar descriptions are given, at great length, of the savages of the Tupi race, inhabiting the central part of Brazil. The following circumstances belong to the favourable part of the picture:

'"They are a stronger race than we," says De Lery, "robuster, healthier, and less liable to diseases. There are few lame persons among them, few that are one-eyed, scarcely any who are deformed; and though there are many who live to six score years of age (for they keep account by moons) yet few become grey. This shows the temperature of that region, which is neither afflicted with cold nor with heat, and hath its trees and herbage alway green; and they themselves, being free from all care, seem as if they had dipt their lips in the Fountain of Youth." In this account of the longevity to which they often attain, and the green and vigorous old age which they enjoy, all testimonies, ancient and modern, accord. Living almost like animals in a state of nature, their senses had that acuteness which the habits of civilized life destroy. If a Tupinamba were lost in the woods, he laid down and snuffed for fire, which it is said they could scent half a mile off, then climbed the highest tree to look for smoke, which they could perceive at a distance where it was invisible to the keenest European eye. But where they had once been before, they knew their path again by a sort of dog-like faculty.'

Though considerably elevated above the rude barbarism of the lower tribes of the American continent, the Tupinambas evidently belonged to the class of savages: for they were unfeeling in their treatment of the sick, and addicted to the horrid custom of cannibalism. It was to them that the reforming efforts of the Jesuits were first directed:

'They began by winning the affections of the children, giving them store of trifling presents; by this sort of intercourse they acquired some use of the language themselves, and soon qualified these little ones for interpreters. They visited the sick, and while they believed that every one whom they sprinkled at the hour of death was a soul rescued from the devil, the charitable services which accompanied such conversions were not lost upon the living.

'These

'These missionaries were every way qualified for their office. They were zealous for the salvation of souls; they had disengaged themselves from all the ties which attach us to life, and were therefore not merely fearless of martyrdom, but ambitious of it; nor can it be doubted that they sometimes worked miracles upon the sick; for when they believed that the patient might be miraculously cured, and he himself expected that he should be so, faith would supply the virtue in which it trusted.

'Nobrega and his companions began their work with those hordes who were sojourning in the vicinity of St. Salvador; they persuaded them to live in peace, they reconciled old enemies, they succeeded in preventing drunkenness, and in making them promise to be contented with one wife; but the cannibalism was more difficult to overcome: the delight of feasting upon the flesh of their enemies was too great to be relinquished.— One of the Jesuits succeeded in abolishing it among some clans by going through them and flogging himself before their doors till he was covered with blood, telling them he thus tormented himself to avert the punishment which God would otherwise inflict upon them for this crying sin. They could not bear this, confessed what they had done was wrong, and enacted heavy punishments against any person who should again be guilty. With other hordes the Fathers thought themselves fortunate in obtaining permission to visit the prisoners and instruct them in the saving faith, before they were put to death.'

Unfortunately, the conduct of the Portugese settlers was not such as to favour the benevolent efforts of the Jesuits. Not only was a part of the trans-Atlantic population of Portugal composed of criminals, but the colonists, who were originally of good character, had been perverted by the temptations of their situation, and by an almost total absence of clerical admonition. The colonization of Brazil had been left during half a century to chance, and the colonists were almost without law and without religion. It had become an established practice to enslave the natives; and all the power of the Catholic religion, directed as it was by the Jesuits against this system of oppression, failed to have more than a partial effect.

We close our extracts by a passage from the notes, which impeaches, we believe, with too much foundation, the character for research of a very popular historian. After having mentioned the mode of enumeration practised by several American tribes, and one in particular which counted by units, fives, and twenties, Mr. Southey says:

'When Pauw reasoned upon the ignorance of the Americans in numbers, did he suppress this remarkable fact,.. or was he ignorant of it? The same question is applicable to Dr. Robertson, who, on this, and many other subjects, in what he calls his History of America, is guilty of such omissions, and consequent misrepresentations, as to make it certain, either that he had not read some of the most important documents to which he refers, or that he did not chuse to notice the facts

sts which are to be found there, because they were not in conformity to his own preconceived opinions. A remarkable example occurs respecting a circulating medium; when he mentions the cacao uts, which were used as money in Mexico, and says, "this seems to e the utmost length which the Americans had advanced towards the iscovery of any expedient for supplying the use of money." Now is said by Cortes himself, that when he was about to make cannon, e had copper enough, but wanted tin;.. and having bought up all he plates and pots, which he could find among the soldiers, he egan to enquire among the natives. He then found that in the proince of Tachco, *little pieces of tin, like thin coin, were used for money,* here and in other places.

'The reputation of this author must rest upon his History of cotland,.. if that can support it. His other works are grievously efficient.'

We resume our observations on Mr. Southey's style. A arning is given by a *black letter* title-page (History of Brazil) at this book is not composed in the fashionable manner of e present day; and truly in diction, as well as in method, Ir. Southey discovers no small predilection for the chronicles f other times. His readers will frequently meet with such ords as *spake* for *spoke; bare* for *bore; lack* for *want; alway; vais; religioner;—to win a town, or to win stores,* &c. &c. oreign names, likewise, are spelt agreeably to the language f the particular country; as Felipe II. of Spain; Joam IV. of ortugal; and Prince Mauritz of Holland. Without discussg the propriety or the prudence of these deviations from mmon usage, we proceed to a remark which is apparently f little consequence; we mean, the position of the notes. ware that it is painful for the reader to interrupt his attention uring the thread of a narrative, we are desirous of seeing bordinate illustrations either incorporated in the text, or ferred, if more remotely connected with the subject, to the end the volume. The latter mode we have, on several occasions, ished to have seen adopted in the present book; in which, in ct, the great body of the notes is so placed; — and we are istaken if the first page does not supply an example in point. e must next advert to the want of a map, which is an almost dispensable requisite to the interest of such long and varied tails. It is delayed, says Mr. Southey, for the purpose of ndering it 'as full and as little incorrect as possible:' but, on nsidering the length of time which has already elapsed before e publication of the second Part, and the miserable maps of uth America which we as yet possess, it is to be regretted at a sketch or outline was not made to accompany the pret volume.

To conclude; imperfect though this publication may be, we ard it as a highly-valuable record, and shall gladly bestow attention

attention on the promised additional portion of it: which, as it will relate to a period nearer our own time, will probably be put together with more attention to the prevailing taste;—an advantage perfectly attainable without any sacrifice of the sterling merits of its precursor.

ART. II. *Tales.* By the Rev. G. Crabbe, L.L. B. 8vo. pp. 400. 12s. Boards. Hatchard. 1812.

VERY few of our poets have run a more singular career than the author of this volume. After having exhibited, at an early age, such specimens of talent as insured him general popularity and critical approbation, and might have stimulated the most languid and the least ambitious to farther exertions, he remained contented with the garlands of his youth for five-and-twenty years: but when, after the lapse of that long period, he resumed his labors, he produced in a short time three considerable works, each exceeding the aggregate of all that he had accomplished before. We trust that he will annually proceed, for many years to come, to excite our wonder in the same manner; and that each successive volume will continue to deserve the praise, which we think is justly due to the present, of improving in all the qualities of a youthful muse,—in grace and spirit, in copiousness, vigor, and sensibility.

Perhaps those of our readers, who have already judged for themselves on the merit of these poems, will arrest us here at the outset; and, while they admit the title of Mr. Crabbe to all the other parts of our panegyric, they will vehemently exclaim against the notion of his deserving any compliments on the score of grace or elegance. We flatter ourselves, however, that our position will be established in all its parts to the satisfaction of this class of censors; to whom, on the other hand, we will frankly own that great concessions are also to be made. That a large proportion of these compositions is wholly without grace, and opposed to elegance,—that they are in several places loaded with unnecessary rubbish, and degraded by useless vulgarity,—it is, we fear, impossible to deny. We lament this the more because it seems to be the result of a system, and might have been easily avoided by the writer of such passages as we shall presently lay before our readers; and we acknowlege that, in our estimation, indiscriminating minuteness and coarse particularity are not to be justified by the additional air of probability, with which they are supposed to invest a fictitious narrative. Not that we complain, after the manner of some contemporary critics, to whom this most patient and reasonable of authors has not refused to offer a reply, that the illusion of his fiction is *too* perfect; that the legitimate object of poetry

is

s to deceive the reader; and that, therefore, (for such is the rgument) the deception becomes faulty when it most nearly esembles reality: but we are disposed to question whether veisimilitude be in truth increased by an enumeration of such particulars, as we are sure would be omitted and overlooked by a person who was relating a series of real facts. Richardson, indeed, who wished to create between his reader and his *dramatis personæ* uch a degree of intimacy as should outlast nine close volumes, night be excused for describing even the china cups and the hintz furniture. Teniers and Wilkie, on the other hand, nay minutely delineate pots, pans, and cabbages, the alembic f the alchemist, the various machines employed by the conuror, and the ragged hat and starved face of the blind fidler, ecause all these things may be kept in due subordination to the rincipal purpose and leading effect of the respective pictures. n short stories, however, the main interest of which depends ommonly on a single crisis, the minor ingredients of character re wasted, and the leading features are alone required; while full detail of little circumstances occupies the same space in a oem, (or probably much more,) as the grand and decisive vents which are calculated to excite the strongest feelings. Confusion is likewise apt to be produced between different ales; and we must add that, in this age of parody, the temptaion to caricature such obvious defects becomes almost irreistible. In truth, on some occasions this author might, himself, be suspected of the wish to burlesque his own prevailing style, by pushing it to a ridiculous excess.

This extensive admission of the prominent vice in the writings of Mr. Crabbe will secure us from the suspicion of being actuated by blind partiality to that gentleman, in the opinion which we have formed of his merits: but, as his mildness nder critical reproof is exemplary, and as he has frequently ne us the honor of noticing our remarks and sometimes of opting our advice, we will just observe that his reason for ining to attempt a more considerable work appears to us avor of modesty or indolence, rather than to proceed on a appreciation of his own powers; and that our objection to want of unity in his poem of the *Borough*, the subject of ich admitted a general bond of connection, does not apply a professed collection of tales, every one of which is in lf a perfect narrative.

The Tales before us are twenty-one in number, and very dismilar in quality. The first in order contains one very well drawn haracter, but has little else to recommend it; and the last of the eries, borrowed from the 108th number of the Tatler, relates ow a foolish boy was horse-whipped by his father out of the

errors of Atheism into the faith of a good Christian. We prefer every other tale in the volume to these two, and shall proceed to give rather a full account of the second, called *The Parting Hour.* It opens with the following lines, which develope, in a great degree, the moral system of the author:

'Minutely trace man's life; year after year,
Through all his days let all his deeds appear,
And then, though some may in that life be strange,
Yet there appears no vast nor sudden change:
The links that bind those various deeds are seen,
And no mysterious void is left between.

'But let these binding links be all destroy'd,
All that through years he suffer'd or enjoy'd;
Let that vast gap be made, and then behold—
This was the youth, and he is thus when old;
Then we at once the work of time survey,
And in an instant see a life's decay;
Pain mixt with pity in our bosoms rise, (for *rises*,)
And sorrow takes new sadness from surprise.'

These observations are illustrated in the story of Allen Booth and Judith Fleming:

'And as the child grew up, there seem'd in him
A more than common life in every limb;
A strong and handsome stripling he became,
And the gay spirit answer'd to the frame;
A lighter, happier lad was never seen,
For ever easy, cheerful, or serene;
His early love he fix'd upon a fair
And gentle Maid—they were a handsome pair.'—

'Whilst yet a boy, when other minds are void,
Domestic thoughts young *Allen*'s hours employ'd;
Judith in gaining hearts had no concern,
Rather intent the Matron's part to learn;
Thus early prudent and sedate they grew,
While lovers, thoughtful—and, though children, true.
To either parents not a day appear'd,
When with this love they might have interfer'd;
Childish at first, they car'd not to restrain;
And strong at last, they saw restriction vain;
Nor knew they when that passion to reprove—
Now idle fondness, now resistless love.'

Allen was, after a long and ill-brooked delay, tempted to one of the West India islands, by the hope of speedily obtaining the means of establishing himself with his betrothed, from an aged relation:

'The faithful *Judith* his design approv'd,
For both were sanguine, they were young and lov'd.

The

The mother's slow consent was then obtain'd;
The time arriv'd, to part alone remain'd:
All things prepar'd, on the expected day
Was seen the vessel anchor'd in the bay.
From her would seamen in the evening come,
To take the advent'rous *Allen* from his home;
With his own friends the final day he pass'd,
And every painful hour except the last.
The grieving father urg'd the cheerful glass,
To make the moments with less sorrow pass.
Intent the mother look'd upon her son,
And wished th' assent withdrawn, the deed undone;
The younger sister, as he took his way,
Hung on his coat and begg'd for more delay;
But his own *Judith* call'd him to the shore,
Whom he must meet, for they might meet no more;—
And there he found her—faithful, mournful, true,
Weeping and waiting for a last adieu!
The ebbing tide had left the sand, and there
Mov'd with slow steps the melancholy pair:
Sweet were the painful moments,—but how sweet,
And without pain when they again should meet!'—

'Now the sad farewell, and the long good-night;
For, see!—his friends come hastening to the beach,
And now the gunwale is within the reach:
"Adieu!—farewell!—remember!"—and what more
Affection taught, was utter'd from the shore!
But *Judith* left them with a heavy heart,
Took a last view, and went to weep apart!
And now his friends went slowly from the place,
Where she stood still, the dashing oar to trace,
Till all were silent!—for the Youth she pray'd,
And softly then return'd the weeping Maid.'

e sailed, was captured by the Spaniards, and cut off from
r hope of returning to his native land: he therefore married,
many years of enforced residence in the Spanish settlement,
ne a rich planter, and the father of a prosperous family:
ie was expelled on suspicion of heresy, and at length found
ray back to his own country, where his Judith, fully per-
ed of his death, had married a tyrant, and become a child-
widow. Allen is supposed to land on the very spot on
h he had left his mistress forty years before.

——'There came
A worn out man with wither'd limbs and lame,
His mind oppress'd with woes, and bent with age his frame;
Yes! old and griev'd, and trembling with decay,
Was *Allen* landing in his native bay,
Willing his breathless form should blend with kindred clay.
In an autumnal eve he left the beach,
In such an eve he chanc'd the port to reach:

He was alone; he press'd the very place
Of the sad parting, of the last embrace:
There stood his parents, there retir'd the Maid,
So fond, so tender, and so much afraid;
And on that spot, through many a year, his mind
Turn'd mournful back, half sinking, half resign'd.

'No one was present; of its crew bereft,
A single boat was in the billows left;
Sent from some anchor'd vessel in the bay,
At the returning tide to sail away:
O'er the black stern the moonlight softly play'd,
The loosen'd foresail flapping in the shade:
All silent else on shore; but from the town
A drowsy peal of distant bells came down:
From the tall houses here and there a light
Serv'd some confus'd remembrance to excite:
"There," he observ'd, and new emotions felt,
"Was my first home—and yonder *Judith* dwelt:
"Dead! dead are all! I long—I fear to know,"
He said, and walk'd impatient, and yet slow.'

Nothing can exceed the picture of the old man's wretchedness, and the blank despondency that absorbed him on finding the sad changes which had occurred in every quarter; of the patience with which he sought for the object of his youthful affection; and of the natural confidence with which they at length renewed their old attachment. It became his chief consolation to relate the melancholy history of his life to his Judith, and

—— 'she too loves to hear
What wrings her bosom, and compels the tear.'

His relation comprises the events here sketched by us. The description of the aged lovers after their re-union thus introduces them to our acquaintance, at the commencement of the story:

'Beneath yon tree observe an ancient Pair—
A sleeping man; a woman, in her chair,
Watching his looks, with kind and pensive air:
No wife, nor sister she, nor is the name
Nor kindred of this friendly pair the same;
Yet so allied are they, that few can feel
Her constant, warm, unwearied, anxious zeal:
Their years and woes, although they long have lov'd,
Keep their good name and conduct unreprov'd;
Thus life's small comforts they together share,
And while life lingers, for the grave prepare.

'No other subjects on their spirits press,
Nor gain such interest as the past distress;
Grievous events, that from the memory drive
Life's common cares, and those alone survive,
Mix with each thought, in every action share,
Darken each dream, and blend with every prayer.'

he tale is thus concluded :

' 'Tis now her office ; her attention see ;
While her friend sleeps beneath that shading tree,
Careful, she guards him from the glowing heat,
And pensive muses at her *Allen*'s feet.

' And where is he ? Ah ! doubtless in those scenes
Of his best days, amid the vivid greens,
Fresh with unnumber'd rills, where ev'ry gale
Breathes the rich fragrance of the neighb'ring vale ;
Smiles not his wife, and listens as there comes
The night-bird's music from the thick'ning glooms ?
And as he sits with all these treasures nigh,
Blaze not with fairy light the phosphor fly,
When like a sparkling gem it wheels illumin'd by ?
This is the joy that now so plainly speaks
In the warm transient flushing of his cheeks ;
For he is listening to the fancied noise
Of his own children, eager in their joys :—
All this he feels, a dream's delusive bliss
Gives the expression, and the glow like this.
And now his *Judith* lays her knitting by,
These strong emotions in her friend to spy ;
For she can fully of their nature deem——
But see ! he breaks the long protracted theme,
And wakes and cries—" My God ! 'twas but a dream !"

Ve have perhaps injured the effect of this poem by altering rrangement, for the sake of giving clearness to our abstract; we are assured that the feelings of the reader will have rseded the necessity of our praise.

he story of Gwyn, the Gentleman Farmer, whose abhor-e of all moral and religious restraint gradually drives him the most abject servitude to a kept mistress, a quack or, and an interested fanatic, is very well imagined.

Ve avoid ' Procrastination,' and proceed to ' *The Patron.*' tion-interests introduced the youngest son of a borough ff, a youth of some poetical talents, into the family of a hbouring nobleman, where he was well received, and per-ly domesticated : his verses were loudly applauded ; and he intoxicated with the idea that he had gained the heart of Lordship's beautiful sister. All this happens in the country. removal of the grandees to the metropolis is thus an-nced :

' To public views my Lord must soon attend ;
And soon the Ladies—would they leave their friend ?
The time was fix'd—approach'd—was near—was come ;
The trying time that fill'd his soul with gloom ;
Thoughtful our Poet in the morning rose,
And cried, " One hour my fortune will disclose ;

" Terrific hour! from thee have I to date
" Life's loftier views, or my degraded state;
" For now to be what I have been before,
" Is so to fall that I can rise no more."

' The morning meal was past; and all around
The mansion rang with each discordant sound;
Haste was in every foot, and every look
The trav'ler's joy for London-journey spoke:
Not so our Youth, whose feelings at the noise
Of preparation, had no touch of joys;
He pensive stood, and saw each carriage drawn,
With lackies mounted, ready on the lawn:
The Ladies came, and *John* in terror threw
One painful glance, and then his eyes withdrew;
Not with such speed, but he in other eyes
With anguish read,—" I pity but despise—
" Unhappy boy! presumptuous scribbler!—you
" To dream such dreams,—be sober, and adieu!"

' Then came the Noble Friend—" And will my Lord
" Vouchsafe no comfort? drop no soothing word?
" Yes he must speak:" he speaks, ' My good young friend
' You know my views; upon my care depend;
' My hearty thanks to your good Father pay,
' And be a student.'—' *Harry*, drive away.' '

We are prepared for the contrast by a short description of the approach of Winter in the country, which would disgrace the Georgics:

' Cold grew the foggy morn, the day was brief,
Loose on the cherry hung the crimson leaf;
The dew dwelt ever on the herb; the woods
Roar'd with strong blasts, with mighty showers the floods
All green was vanish'd save of pine and yew,
That still display'd their melancholy hue;
Save the green holly with its berries red,
And the green moss that o'er the gravel spread.'

The deserted mansion is painted with equal skill:

' Stillness reign'd all around; of late so full
The busy scene; deserted now and dull;
Stern is his nature, who forbears to feel
Gloom o'er his spirits on such trials steal;
Most keenly felt our Poet as he went
From room to room without a fix'd intent;
" And here," he thought, " I was caress'd, admir'd
" Were here my songs, she smil'd, and I aspir'd:
" The change how grievous!" As he mus'd, a dame
Busy and peevish to her duties came;
Aside the tables and the chairs she drew,
And sang and mutter'd in the Poet's view;

' The

'This was her fortune; here they leave the poor;
'Enjoy themselves, and think of us no more;
'I had a promise—' here his pride and shame
Urg'd him to fly from this familiar dame;
He gave one farewell look, and by a coach
Reach'd his own mansion at the night's approach.'

From his father's house, John was summoned to London by old and stately letter:

'At a tall building trembling he appear'd,
And his low rap was indistinctly heard.'

He was desired to wait, "my Lord being engaged with company:"

'Alone our Hero sate; the news in hand,
Which though he read, he could not understand:
Cold was the day; in days so cold as these
There needs a fire, where minds and bodies freeze;
The vast, and echoing room, the polish'd grate,
The crimson chairs, the sideboard with its plate;
The splendid sofa, which, though made for rest,
He then had thought it freedom to have press'd;
The shining tables, curiously inlaid,
Were all in comfortless proud style display'd;
And to the troubled feelings terror gave,
That made the once dear friend the sick'ning slave.

'"Was he forgotten?" Thrice upon his ear
Struck the loud clock, yet no relief was near;
Each rattling carriage, and each thundering stroke
On the loud door, the dream of fancy broke;
Oft as a servant chanc'd the way to come,
"Brings he a message?" no! he pass'd the room.'

An appointment was made for another day, when he called, received a letter from the servant, and found his hopes of church-preferment, of high connection, and of poetic fame, suddenly dwindled down to a low office on the London Quays:

'In some appointment on the London Quays,
He bid farewell to honour and to ease;
His spirit fell, and from that hour assur'd
How vain his dreams, he suffer'd and was cur'd.'

He undertook, however, his degrading duties for a time; but disgust, disappointment, wounded pride, and tenderness prevailed,

—— 'with mighty force the youth assail'd,
Till his soul fainted, and his reason fail'd;'

when, finding that his associates were preparing to disclose the fact to his patron, he abruptly fled.

His next appearance is at the moment of being returned to his family, by a friend who accidentally met him,

——'afflicted and subdued,
By hunger, sorrow, cold and solitude.

'Silent he enter'd the forgotten room,
As ghostly forms may be conceiv'd to come;
With sorrow-shrunken face and hair upright,
He look'd dismay, neglect, despair, affright;
But, dead to comfort, and on misery thrown,
His Parents' loss he felt not nor his own.

'The good Man, struck with horror, cried aloud,
And drew around him an astonish'd crowd;
The sons and servants to the Father ran,
To share the feelings of the griev'd old man.'

——'Quiet, love, and care,
Strove with the gloom and broke on the despair;
Yet slow their progress, and, as vapours move
Dense and reluctant from the wint'ry grove;
All is confusion till the morning light
Gives the dim scene obscurely to the sight;
More and yet more defin'd the trunks appear,
Till the wild prospect stands distinct and clear;—
So the dark mind of our young Poet grew
Clear and sedate; the dreadful mists withdrew;
And he resembled that bleak wint'ry scene,
Sad, though unclouded; dismal, though serene.'

The story ought to have been closed with the death of the deluded young poet, or, at any rate, with the father's reflections:

'Now grew the Youth resign'd; he bade adieu
To all that Hope, to all that Fancy drew;
His frame was languid, and the hectic heat
Flush'd on his pallid face, and countless beat
The quick'ning pulse, and faint the limbs that bore
The slender form that soon would breathe no more.

'Then hope of holy kind the soul sustain'd,
And not a lingering thought of earth remain'd;
Now Heaven had all, and he could smile at love,
And the wild sallies of his youth reprove;
Then could he dwell upon the tempting days,
The proud aspiring thought, the partial praise;
Victorious now, his worldly views were clos'd,
And on the bed of death the Youth repos'd.

'The Father griev'd—but as the Poet's heart
Was all unfitted for his earthly part;
As, he conceiv'd, some other haughty fair,
Would, had he liv'd, have led him to despair;
As, with this fear, the silent grave shut out
All feverish hope, and all tormenting doubt;

While

While the strong faith the pious Youth possess'd,
His hope enlivening gave his sorrows rest;
Sooth'd by these thoughts, he felt a mournful joy
For his aspiring and devoted boy.'

he reader will find something extremely pretty in the Tale *he Widow*, an antient gentlewoman,

'A dainty dame, who can but barely live
On her small pittance, yet contrives to give;'

whose elegance of manner attracts the confidence of a ool-bred young lady, anxious to avoid the dreadful evil of rying a farmer. She is charmed with the widow's trimness pparel, the neatness of her cottage, and the good taste which ks the arbour and the garden; and, resolved to find her all a romantic girl can fancy in an interesting female more ad- ed in years, she lays her complaints at large before her id:

'The Widow smil'd, and "Know you not," said she,
"How much these Farmers scorn or pity me;
"Who see what you admire and laugh at all they see?
"True, their opinion alters not my fate,
"By falsely judging of an humble state:
"This garden you with such delight behold,
"Tempts not a feeble dame who dreads the cold;
"These plants, which please so well your livelier sense,
"To mine but little of their sweets dispense;
"Books soon are painful to my failing sight,
"And oft'ner read from duty than delight;
"(Yet let me own, that I can sometimes find
"Both joy and duty in the act combin'd;)
"But view me rightly, you will see no more
"Than a poor female willing to be poor;
"Happy indeed, but not in books nor flowers,
"Not in fair dreams indulg'd in earlier hours,
"Of never-tasted joys;—such visions shun,
"My youthful Friend, nor scorn the Farmer's Son."

Ve shall leave our fair readers to conjecture how this story s.

The Lover's Journey' is a delightful poem; and '*Edward re*' is a deeply affecting story. '*The Struggles of Conscience*' exemplified in the history of young Fulham, who is ier oddly introduced to the reader as 'a serious toyman in city,' and whose life is divided between sin, self-delusion, repentance. The state of his mind, towards the close of days, is forcibly exhibited in a passage which, perhaps, ows Juvenal somewhat too closely:

'Now desperate grown, weak, harrass'd, and afraid,
From new allies he sought for doubtful aid;

To

To thought itself he strove to bid adieu,
And from devotions to diversions flew;
He took a poor domestic for a slave;
(Though Avarice griev'd to see the price he gave;)
Upon his board, once frugal, press'd a load
Of viands rich, the appetite to goad;
The long-protracted meal, the sparkling cup,
Fought with his gloom, and kept his courage up:
Soon as the morning came there met his eyes
Accounts of wealth, that he might reading rise;
To profit then he gave some active hours,
Till food and wine again should renovate his powers:
Yet, spite of all defence, of every aid,
The watchful foe her close attention paid;
In every thoughtful moment on she press'd,
And gave at once her dagger to his breast:
He wak'd at midnight, and the fears of sin,
As waters, through a bursten dam, broke in;
Nay, in the banquet, with his friends around,
When all their cares and half their crimes were drown'd,
Would some chance act awake the slumbering fear,
And care and crime in all their strength appear:
The news is read, a guilty victim swings,
And troubled looks proclaim the bosom-stings;
Some pair are wed; this brings the wife in view,
And some divorc'd; this shews the parting too:
Nor can he hear of evil word or deed,
But they to thought, and thought to sufferings lead.'

'*Resentment*' is a dreadful but (we fear) not an unnatural story: its catastrophe has too great an affinity to that of '*The Brothers.*' In these two stories, and '*The Confidant,*' Mr. Crabbe has displayed his uncommon keenness of searching into the mind of man, united with a remarkable power of affecting the feelings: in most of the remaining tales, he has been satisfied with the former. '*Arabella*' and '*The Mother*' are admirable in this class. '*Jesse and Colin*' combines some excellent traits of ordinary life with all the interest of a genuine pastoral; setting the misery of a dependant girl, who is employed by a rich relation as a spy on all her household and acquaintance, in opposition to the pure pleasures of a disinterested attachment, long cherished, and finally gratified. We cannot refrain from copying a short description of the lover, during the absence of his beloved:

'The pensive *Colin* in his garden stray'd,
But felt not then the beauties it display'd;
There many a pleasant object met his view,
A rising wood of oaks behind it grew;
A stream ran by it, and the village green
And public road were from the garden seen;

Save

Save where the pine and larch the bound'ry made,
And on the rose-beds threw a softening shade.'

he consolation offered by his mother is too long for in-
on: but the portrait of that respectable parent, who had
vn better days, must not be omitted:

' The Mother sat beside the garden-door,
Dress'd as in times ere she and hers were poor;
The broad-laced cap was known in ancient days,
When Madam's dress compell'd the village praise;
And still she look'd as in the times of old,
Ere his last farm the erring husband sold;
While yet the mansion stood in decent state,
And paupers waited at the well-known gate.'

ur extracts, however, have already exceeded all reasonable
nds, and one or two observations still remain to be offered.
t, the author's style is improved by the paring away of
ward and uncouth phrases, which were objectionable in
e of his former works: but, secondly, the narrative is too
n disfigured by a very unpleasant habit of attempting to
. ' *High-applauding* voice, that gained him *high applause*;'
oice of rare songs, and garlands of *choice* flowers;- And all
hungry mind *without a choice* devours,' &c. &c. Examples
his kind seem to take for granted not only that all puns
t be witty, but that all jingles of words must be puns. One
ance occurs of a real pun, though not very happy in
f, inhumanly obtruded on the reader in the most affecting
nent of one of the best stories. We allude to that in the
nd and third lines of the hundreth page, and earnestly hope
ee it expunged from the next edition.

n Mr. Crabbe's general character as a poet, we deem it
cely necessary now to offer a single word. The public has
nounced, and this volume is not likely to alter their verdict.
ndeed, we were compelled to institute a comparison between
d its precursors, we should be inclined to say decidedly
: it sometimes attains a higher degree of poetical merit, but
ld doubt whether it did not also exhibit a larger portion of
t might have been advantageously spared:—" Lesser than
beth, yet much greater; not so happy, yet far happier."

fter having perused the quotations which we have made,
reader will learn with a smile that the writer of them has
ived an intimation from some of his critical supervisors
t, whatever credit he may deserve as a faithful delineator of
n, manners, and things, he must not aspire to the name of a
T; at which he seems not a little distressed. In the pre-
, he labors the point at some length, with infinite humility
l diffidence, and endeavours to shew that he ought in fairness

to

to be comprised within any legitimate definition of the word. We will not, however, venture to prophecy what turns of language the enlightened metaphysics of modern times may produce: but this we will offer by way of consolation to Mr. Crabbe, that, when his name is struck off the roll of poets, not only Romeo's Apothecary, and Chamont's Witch, Pope's Sir Balaam, and his Death of Buckingham, but the better half of Shakspeare's plays, must no longer bear the name of poetry.

ART. III. *A Vindication of Mr. Fox's History of the early Part of the Reign of James II.* By Samuel Heywood, Serjeant at Law. 4to. pp. 524. 1l. 16s. Boards. Johnson and Co. 1811.

WHOEVER was acquainted with the warmth of affection, which was excited by Mr. Fox in the minds of his friends, might rest assured that an attack on his literary labours would not remain long unanswered; and all who knew the candour and openness of his heart were convinced that an investigation, however minute, of his historical accuracy, could lead to no suspicion of intentional mis-statement. They had likewise good reason for believing that his industry, with regard to the portion (unfortunately too limited) of our history which has been illustrated by his pen, would fall little short of the purity of his principles; since he was scrupulously inquisitive after original documents, and spared no labour or expence in obtaining access to vouchers of a class superior to those which commonly fall into the hands of an historian. We find, accordingly, that one of his friends lost no time in preparing, amid a multiplicity of professional avocations, a reply to the strictures of Mr. Rose. Serjeant Heywood was not only intimate with Mr. Fox during the latter years of his life, but may be deemed an associate in his researches and speculations on the part of our history which is connected with the Revolution; and to Lord Holland's preface to Mr. Fox's book is subjoined a letter from our lamented statesman to the learned Serjeant, expressive of the familiarity of their communications on historical topics.

The task of examining and noting corrections of Mr. Rose's work seems to have been begun by Serjeant H. soon after its publication: but some delay took place, as we are told, (preface, p. 40.) in reducing these detached observations into a regular form. Animated with strong attachment to the memory of Mr. Fox, Serjeant H. confesses that he felt indignant, on a first perusal, at the multiplied mis-statements of Mr. Rose; and he suspected a deliberate intention of detracting unjustly from

from the reputation of his illustrious friend: but a farther investigation having discovered equal inaccuracy, both as to fact and as to argument, in the parts of Mr. Rose's book which had no reference to Mr. Fox, he was satisfied that he might attribute to precipitation that which he had at first imputed to design.

We have always considered Mr. Fox's historical fragment as valuable chiefly on these two accounts;—as an exhibition of the political creed of a leading statesman, and as an attempt to restore to history that moral effect which is so delightful in the writings of the antients, but which, in our modern relations, seems to be overlooked in calculating views of policy and government. Of his success in the latter object, the impressive and pathetic narrative of the death of the Earl of Argyle will remain a lasting monument; and the value of his book, in these its brilliant features, would still have been conspicuous, had its accuracy in the detail of minor circumstances been open to reprehension:—the public would have looked to the general merit of the work, and would have ascribed such minute errors to the accident of its being unfinished. Serjeant Heywood, however has shewn no disposition, and felt no necessity, for such a compromise. He has met Mr. Rose with his own weapons, and has asserted Mr. Fox's accuracy even in the dry and uninviting task of scrutinizing dates and circumstances of detail. If, in this intricate inquiry, the composition of the learned Serjeant is found to partake of the tediousness of the subject, and can make no pretensions to elegance, he has at least the satisfaction of vindicating most completely the reputation of Mr. Fox, and of proving his scrupulous care in research; although the great merit of his history is of a different kind, and consists in the display of humane and liberal feeling.

The first subject of consequence, on which the learned Serjeant dissents from Mr. Rose, is the manner in which Mr. Fox has spoken of the public execution of Charles I. The words of the historian are, we confess, not a little calculated to startle a devoted adherent to monarchical government. Instead of an effusion of indignation at the act, the reader of Mr. Fox's history finds a cool examination into its justice and utility (See M. R. Vol. lvi. N. S. p. 194.);—and, among other remarks, it is said that "foreigners have applauded the English character for doing openly that which, in the case of dethroned princes, is so often perpetrated in secret." Mr. Rose is by no means disposed to reason patiently on such language, and accuses Mr. Fox of alleging that "our horror at the atrocity of the act is to be abated by its publicity." Serjeant Heywood considers this inference as overcharged, and labours to acquit Mr. Fox of any wish to lessen the public horror at the King's condemnation. He is more

more successful, however, in a collateral topic, which he treats at some length; we mean the repetition of the charge vulgarly circulated against Mr. Fox, that he did not feel a due abhorrence at the death of Louis XVI.; and the learned author makes (p. 20, &c.) various extracts from Mr. Fox's speeches at that melancholy era, which demonstrate how strongly the fate of that sovereign excited his sympathy.

The next topic of discussion is the character of General Monk; and, in particular, the question whether he was instrumental in preventing, in 1661, the acquittal of the unfortunate Marquis of Argyle. Mr. Fox, it will be remembered, is exceedingly severe on the reputation of Monk. "All," he says, "depended on the army, and that army had fallen into the hands of one than whom a baser could not be found in its lowest ranks. Personal courage appears to have been Monk's only virtue; reserve and dissimulation made up the whole stock of his wisdom." So positive a condemnation rendered Mr. Rose very indignant; and he not only enters on a long vindication of Monk, but accuses Mr. Fox of partiality, in omitting to pay a tribute of approbation to the memory of that valiant royalist, the Marquis of Montrose. The learned Serjeant is not slow in taking up the gauntlet in support of Mr. Fox's accusation of Monk; and he relates (p. 70. et seq.) very fully, and clearly, the arguments for believing that Monk was guilty of the charge imputed to him in the case of Argyle: but the question has been already discussed in our pages, (Vol. lix. p. 231.) in a way that renders a recurrence to it unnecessary. We cannot, however, avoid remarking that Serjeant Heywood has adduced fresh proofs of Monk's duplicity. The following anecdote is preserved in the British Museum, and evinces the suspicions of him which the more penetrating among the republicans began to entertain in the year before he overset their government:

'"When Harry Martin was leaving England, to live in Holland, March 1659, he went to take his leave of Monk, and asked him, whether he would set up a kingly, or a commonwealth government; — a commonwealth, said Monk. This was after the militia was settling. Said Martin, I'll tell you a story; I met a man with a saw, a pick-axe, and a hatchet, and asked him what he meant to do with those tools; — he said, I am going to take measure of a gentleman to make him a suit of clothes. Apply it yourself; it is as likely you will set up a commonwealth with your ways, as he to make a suit with those tools."— Symonds's Anecdotes in Dr. Birch's Papers in the British Museum. MSS. No. 4164.'

In speaking of the trial of the regicides after the restoration, and of Monk's infidelity to his former friends, Serjeant Heywood relates a revolting charge against Monk, on the authority

uable historical document which was given a few years
ie public, we mean the Life of Colonel Hutchinson:

Hutchinson has preserved another trait connected with these
aracteristic of the heart of Monk, of which she was herself
tness; after describing the persecution to which the prisoners
jected, she says "I cannot forget *one passage that I saw.*
id his wife, before they were moved to the Tower, while
e yet prisoners at Lambeth House, came one evening to the
and caused them to be brought down, only to stare at them.
was such a barbarism, for that man who had betrayed so
or men to death and misery, that never hurt him, but had
him, and trusted their lives and interests with him, to glut
y eyes with beholding them in their bondage, as no story
lel the inhumanity of." '

out differing from this female author as to the fact of
nd his wife coming to see the prisoners, we must be
d to ascribe the visit to a more substantial cause than
riosity. They were both too close calculators to waste
ne for an unprofitable gratification. "Profit," says
on, "was always the highest reason with Monk;" and
, it is well known, even took the lead of him in cove-
. Monk, when subsequently created Duke of Albe-
was allowed to engross several places of extensive
e, and had no scruple in selling all subordinate offices
ghest bidder *. It is a fact that even those persons,
l received from the King a promise of being nominated
appointments, were refused by Monk on the plea, re-
y Clarendon, that his wife would hear of no considera-
: money.

rd point at issue between Mr. Rose and Serjeant Hey-
of great importance, and concerns the leading feature of
's book; namely, the opinion so strongly expressed by
at the first object with the infatuated James was the
w of our *liberty*, not of our *religion*. Mr. Rose main-
contrary idea, and has accumulated a variety of argu-
n his side of the question. He goes back to the reign
les II., and takes pains to exhibit a contrast in the con-
the two brothers. Charles was alarmed at the temerity
sition discovered by James with regard to religion, and
st urgent with him to assume the appearance of return-
ie protestant faith; when, in one of their conversations,
, startled at James's rashness, is reported to have said,
er, I am too old to go again on my travels; you may if
ise."—It would greatly exceed our limits to enter on

* Clarendon's Continuation, p. 46.

a survey

a survey of the different arguments, drawn as they are from a variety of sources. On Mr. Rose's extracts from the correspondence between James and Louis XIV., we have already (Vol. lix. p. 229.) expressed an opinion; and the additional light thrown on the subject by Serjeant Heywood (p. 176. et. seq.) has tended to confirm us in our impressions. The MS. genealogy of the family of Lindsey came into the hands of the learned Serjeant, and contains the following remarkable passage respecting King James:

'"When he became King, all his good qualities became defaced by a religion, so detestable to his subjects.—Yet he always protested, that he never meant to constrain the minds of any, and that *all he wanted was toleration to his own religion.* Certain it is, that some days before he died at St. Germains, he brought all the Foreign Ministers into his room, and all his subjects of any rank, who were there, took the Sacrament before them, and called the Almighty to witness, that he never intended to alter the laws, or religion, of his country, except that of toleration, for which he hoped for the concurrence of Parliament."'

In addition to this declaration of James, we are now to report the effects of Serjeant Heywood's progressive advance in research:

'In discussing this subject the author is in some respect an impartial inquirer. When Mr. Fox was writing this part of his work, he did me the honour, occasionally to mention in conversation, the manner in which particular parts of our history had impressed his mind. And upon the point now in dispute I ventured to differ from him, conceiving with historians of all parties, that the principal motive, which actuated James's public conduct, was the establishment of the Catholic religion in his dominions, and that he was to be considered, rather as a bigot than a tyrant; we conversed and corresponded upon the subject. But I am not ashamed to avow my having now become a convert to his opinion, and my conviction that in the ambition, not the bigotry of James; in secular, not religious objects, must be sought the master-spring of his conduct, immediately after he succeeded to the throne. The correspondence of Barillon, and his master, published in the Appendix to the Historical Work, surprized me, for I had expected it would have furnished the most ample confirmation of the opinion so generally entertained, but, on the contrary, an examination of the documents at first gave me reason to doubt whether it was well founded, and at last compelled me to abandon it altogether.'

An admission of this nature, from a diligent inquirer, is deserving of particular attention. The controversy, however, may be in a great measure decided by a proper discrimination of dates and circumstances. James's triumph over the invasion of Monmouth formed a new era in his reign; it added consi-

considerably to the strength of his government, and still more to his confidence in himself. From that time forwards, decisive measures became his policy; and he was remarked to listen with complacency to the compliments paid to him by his courtiers on the vigorous character of his proceedings. Mr. Fox's history is confined to the first year of James's reign, and is not to be understood as denying that the subsequent attempts of that monarch were directed with full hostility against our religion. Mr. Fox says, indeed, expressly, at the conclusion of his book:

"'" With the lives of Monmouth and Argyle ended, or at least seemed to end, all prospect of resistance to James's absolute power; and that class of patriots who feel the pride of submission, and the dignity of obedience, might be completely satisfied that the Crown was in its full lustre. James was sufficiently conscious of the increased strength of his situation, and it is probable that the security he now felt in his power, inspired him with the design of taking more decided steps in favour of the Popish religion and its professors, than his connection with the Church of England-party had before allowed him to entertain."'

In confirmation of Mr. Fox's opinion that the leading object with James, at least in the early part of his reign, was the establishment of arbitrary power, Serjeant Heywood observes that, for some time, the hope of the Catholics themselves went no farther than toleration; and Barillon describes them, on the commencement of the second session of parliament, as divided among themselves respecting the intent of the toleration which they should require. Some of them wished only for a repeal of the penal laws: but the Jesuits, and those who were in the confidence of the King, were desirous also of the removal of the test-act. At this time, however, it is perfectly clear, a complete toleration would have been satisfactory to all.—We conclude our observations on this branch of the subject on a reference to the opinion with which we were impressed on the perusal of the interesting letters of Barillon in Mr. Fox's appendix. (See M. R. Vol. lvii. N. S. p. 75.)

After a long recapitulation of the arguments in opposition to Mr. Rose's charges on Mr. Fox, the learned Serjeant drops for a time the character of a controversialist, and comes forwards (Section v. p. 245.) in the more pleasant capacity of a narrator of events. Having lamented the deficiency of our histories of Charles II. and James II., he aims at supplying the desideratum by a sketch of the principles and conduct of these princes. This section, accordingly, will be found the most entertaining of the volume. It discovers equal attention to historical research with the argumentative part, and is ex-

empt from the unfortunate interruptions of reasoning and the prolix statement of minutiæ which clog the other portions of the volume. The observations on the gradual formation of the character of James are interesting, from the aid which they impart towards forming our estimate of his conduct, both as King and as Duke of York:

'The disposition and habits of thinking of the Duke of York were very different from those of his brother, and it is surprizing that he should have gained, and kept for so long a time the powerful ascendancy over his mind, which was visible for the greater part of his reign. Burnet says * that the King never loved or esteemed him, but stood in awe of him. Charles excelled him in penetration and judgement, and yet, from the natural indolence of his disposition, frequently yielded to his opinion when contrary to his own. The Duke was fond of business and accustomed to examine every thing in its detail; he possessed an eager and ardent mind, and, for want of proper restraint and correction in his youth, was distinguished in his riper years by an obstinate perseverance in whatever resolution he made, or opinion he formed. His education had been much neglected in his father's life, at whose death he was about sixteen years of age; after his escape into France, Sir John Berkeley, who is described by Burnet as very arbitrary in his temper and notions, and seemed to lean to popery, was appointed his governor.—The want of sensibility in the correspondence of James, while Duke of York, with the Prince of Orange, has been remarked by Dalrymple; the same deficiency was manifested, after he became King, in the satisfaction he expressed at the bloody proceedings of Jeffries after Monmouth's defeat.'

Considerable doubts have existed relative to the date of the conversion of Charles and James to the Catholic faith. In the case of the former, this needs excite no surprise, his conduct being such as to justify a suspicion that he was wholly unincumbered with religious scruples: but, whatever his private sentiments might have been, it is now ascertained, as we shall see presently, that he never made a formal declaration of adherence to the Church of Rome, until his last illness. With respect to James, it is said in Wellwood's Memoirs that he was privately reconciled to the Church of Rome previously to the Restoration: while other accounts fix the date of this remarkable change in the year 1671.

'But there has fortunately been preserved that part of James's Diary, which contains the account of his conversion, and puts an end to all dispute. For he tells us that "he did not turn till after" his return to England, and he had read "the histories of the Re-

'* Burnet knew him personally, and at one time intimately when Duke of York, and is confirmed in almost every particular by Barillon, who was acquainted with him when he was farther advanced in life, and seated upon the throne.'

formation."

nation," and that about the beginning of 1669, (having long had
is thoughts that the Church of Rome was the only true church)
was more sensibly touched in conscience, and began to think
ously of his salvation.'—

The date of his public avowal of the Catholic religion was some
ths previous to the Christmas of 1672, yet after that he conti-
l to attend the King to the Protestant church; but the secret
out, and to guard against the apprehended mischief the Test Act
passed. The withholding from the public the avowal of his
ersion was not exactly consistent with his general character; it
ht have been expected that he would have gloried in the act,
er than have condescended to conceal it. His brother, aware of
impending danger, wished him to retrace the steps he had taken,
provoked at the weakness, which had permitted the crown to be
ed of what was, in his estimation, one of its most valuable pre-
tives, and feeling himself humiliated and unjustly persecuted, he
nes) resumed his usual spirit, refused all compromise, and on the
of June resigned his employments. An extract from his Diary
rks, "All the storms now raised, and which afterwards followed
Duke in Parliament, bear their date and origin from the susp-
they had of his being converted to the Roman Catholic faith.
could his private enemies, till then, gain any advantage over him.
re that time, he was looked upon as the darling of the nation; for
having so freely, and so often, ventured his life for the honour
interest of the King and country, and for his having been always
tive and industrious in carrying on every thing as to trade, or as
avigation, that might tend to their advantage."

Upon this occasion, the different dispositions of the two brothers
strongly marked in the conduct of each. Charles, artful, indo-
and timid, wished to manage his own subjects, without resorting
e desperate measure of calling for the interference of a foreign
er. James, on the contrary, eager, rash, and obstinate, was
led with the prospect of the crown being possessed of arbitrary
er, and no longer restrained by parliaments. He could not brook
, but precipitately became a member of the Catholic church, as
as his brother's conduct afforded a sanction. He flattered him-
hat this decisive step would secure the aid of the Catholic powers,
waited only for his brother's permission to make the public
al of his creed. Possibly he might hope to fix the wavering
l of the King, and accelerate his declaration, without which he
persuaded monarchy must always remain in danger. The diffi-
es he encountered made him more determined in his conduct, and
rother's efforts to recall him to his former religion, the loss of all
employments, and a long train of calamities and humiliations,
d only to strengthen his resolution.'

We are next to mark the behaviour of the two brothers
ectively concerning the French court. Louis XIV.,
uing his scheme of subjugating Europe, spared no pains
revent or at least to delay the assembling of English par-
ents; because they were in his eyes something like what

our navy is now in those of Bonaparte. It was Parliament that had compelled Charles to abandon the disgraceful alliance of 1672 against Holland, when Louis considered himself as on the high road to the conquest of that republic. The policy of Louis, therefore, was to flatter Charles with the hope of rendering him independent of his parliament; and to remit him successive sums, by way of bribe, for suspending, at certain seasons, the meeting of that obnoxious assembly:

'Charles, who found his plan of arbitrary power counteracted, and imagined his throne itself was endangered by the meeting of these assemblies, was not less desirous than Lewis could be, that his actions might be exempted from their controul, and his prerogatives secured from their interference. But he found, that the threat of calling a parliament stimulated the French King to fresh supplies, or new subsidies, and therefore he did not chuse, in the early part of his reign at least, that it should be supposed he could by any possibility do entirely without them. On the other hand, Lewis did not wish that Charles should reign in tranquillity. From motives of policy he inclined to the re-establishment of a monarchical system of government in England, and that the exiled family should be restored, but his intention was that it should hold the sceptre in dependence upon him. The meeting of the parliaments might occasionally derange his plans, and force its sovereign, reluctantly, into measures hostile to his views. It is not surprising, therefore, that Lewis should consider it as an important object to do entirely without parliaments, if possible, and look, with some degree of anxiety and apprehension, to the times of their assembling.'

Barillon's correspondence exhibits many proofs of diplomatic artifice on both sides. The fixed object of Louis was to insure a passive conduct on the part of England, while he proceeded to undermine the independence of his neighbours: while the object of Charles was, without any check from delicacy or any consideration of political consequences, to extract as much money as he could draw out of the French treasury. At one time, his plea for making a pecuniary demand on Louis was the re-establishment of the Catholic faith in England; and when this pretence had grown out of season, he expatiated loudly on the danger to monarchical power which might arise from the popular party in his dominions. In 1679, he applied to Barillon

'For the assistance of Lewis, in order that "He might not receive the law from his subjects," or as he also expressed it, that he might re-establish his affairs, "and not any longer depend on the caprice of the House of Commons." Barillon was desirous to know whether he designed to go on without a parliament, for a long time, or only to put off the session by frequent prorogations, and Charles answered, that he had already dissolved the parliament, and "could still put off the meeting of a new one," but he could not "engage, or promise

mise to dispense altogether with parliaments, because he had no hopes that your Majesty (Louis) would furnish the sums necessary for sustaining the expences of the state, and supporting him long, without the assistance of parliament." Charles seems to have satisfied Barillon, that it was absolutely necessary he should call a parliament, and Barillon told him, that the meetings of parliament always appeared very dangerous, "and that it was difficult to promise himself any thing from it favourable to his interests, and that he would be always exposed to see the parliament carry itself in every thing contrary to France, and perhaps force him to enter into such measures himself."'

Two years afterward, Barillon, writing to his master, speaks out very explicitly:

' "There remains only one difficulty, which is that of putting off *for ever* the sittings of the parliament. I know very well it is a security which your Majesty has reason to demand, but you promised me, in 1679, to consent that the parliament should assemble when the King of England should think it necessary for his own interests, provided that then the subsidies should cease."'

The idea of vigour attached to James's character, and his watchful care of our naval establishments, induced the world to believe, on his accession, that he would shew himself much less dependent on the court of France than his indolent and mean-spirited brother. The published letters of the Count d'Avaux, among other things, bear testimony to the diffusion of this opinion; and it was not until the discoveries of the last age that the real nature of the connection between James and Louis was ascertained. From the copious information afforded by Barillon's letters, we find that the chief difference between Charles and James, in their secret negociation with France, regarded the manner, not the substance, of the propositions to Louis:

'It has been said,' observes Serjeant Heywood, 'that, in the latter part of his life, James repelled with indignation the charge of his having entered into money-engagements with France inconsistent with the interests of his kingdom and people, and declared that he never made any with that power. This is probably true, but it appears that he was enabled to make that declaration, not through any merit of his own, for during a large portion of his reign, he sought to renew with France the disgraceful treaties for subsidies, which had occasioned so much mischief in the former reign, and was displeased that Lewis would not enter into any with him. At the same time, we ought not to rob the memory of James of the merit of having assumed with France a tone, and used a language, which his brother had not the spirit to adopt. Upon perusing the correspondence in the two reigns, there is a very remarkable difference; after James came to the throne, there is no appearance or acknowledgement of dependence upon his side, he asks supplies because without them he shall not be able to compass the design, which Lewis wished as well

as himself, and offers a return of gratitude, but as the equal of the person he is applying to. In the letters between Barillon and Lewis he is treated with respect, Barillon always describing him as a determined character, having a will of his own, and not surrendering his understanding to the guidance of others. In short he was treated by them, as a person to be suspected and watched, and counteracted, but not easily to be influenced, and never to be commanded.'

The circumstances attending the death of Charles II. have long been matter of curiosity, on account of the light which they tended to throw on his religious creed; and under this impression, the clear and circumstantial account of them given by the French ambassador, Barillon, and inserted in Sir John Dalrymple's Papers, (Appendix to Part I. Book I.) has been read with great avidity. Barillon relates that, as soon as he understood that no hopes remained of the King's recovery, he repaired to Whitehall, and was immediately admitted to the anti-chamber by order of James; who was very frequently in his brother's room, and who issued all the directions necessary at that critical juncture. James shewed great attention to Barillon, and, in apprizing him of the approaching death of his brother, desired him to assure Louis "that he should always find *him* a faithful and grateful servant." On going to the apartment of the Duchess of Portsmouth, Barillon saw her in tears. "However," he adds, "instead of speaking to me of her affliction at the loss she was about to sustain, she took me into a small closet, and said, "I am going to tell you the greatest secret in the world, and my head would be in danger if it was known. The King of England, at the bottom of his heart, is a Catholic, but he is surrounded with Protestant bishops, and nobody tells him his condition, or speaks to him of God. I cannot with decency enter the room, besides that the Queen is almost constantly there: the Duke of York thinks of his own affairs, and has too many of them to take the care he ought of the King's conscience: go and tell him that I have conjured you to warn him to think of what can be done to save the King's soul. He commands the room, and can turn out whom he will. Lose no time; for if it is deferred ever so little, it will be too late." On this urgent appeal, Barillon went to the Duke, who recovered himself as from a stupor, and said, "You are in the right: there is no time to lose. I will hazard all rather than not do my duty on this occasion." Barillon proceeds to relate the difficulty which they experienced in introducing a priest to the King, without the observation of the bishops: but, having found one Huddleston, a Scotsman, who had saved Charles's life after the battle of Worcester, they disguised him in a wig and gown. This was between

between seven and eight in the evening; and the Duke of York having said aloud, from the King's bed-side, "The King orders every body to retire, except the Earls of Bath and Feversham," the room was cleared. The Duke then introduced Huddleston, saying to his brother, "Sire, here is a man who saved your life, and is now come to save your soul." Charles answered, "He is welcome," and proceeded to confess himself with much devotion and repentance. He received absolution, the communion, and even the extreme unction. "The Duke of York told me," adds Barillon, "that Huddleston acquitted himself very well in his functions, and made the King promise to declare himself openly a Catholic if he recovered his health."

Such is the substance of the account rendered by Barillon to Louis. Father Huddleston has likewise given, in a short publication, a report of the behaviour of Charles during the performance of the religious rites. Serjeant Heywood is inclined, however, to suspect greatly the accuracy of both details. It was the interest of James to persuade Louis in the first place, and, in due season, the English nation, that his brother had died a Catholic; and, reasoning on this assumption, the learned Serjeant is disposed to infer that Barillon was deceived in several respects, and that Huddleston was made the instrument of circulating an exaggerated statement. This suspicion receives some confirmation from a letter of a Catholic priest named Aprice, printed in the Appendix to Harris's Life of Charles II.: but it is to be regretted that this letter, evidently written without any intention to misrepresent, should be brief and inexplicit concerning several essential particulars. The date affixed to it is clearly erroneous; since, though it has escaped the observation of the learned Serjeant, the writer speaks of measures taken by James several days after his accession.—With this preliminary caution, we lay before our readers the notion entertained by Serjeant Heywood regarding this mysterious transaction:

'What James could not effect when Charles was in health, and his faculties were entire, he contrived to bring about not long afterwards in the closing scene of his life; when he had the triumph of seeing the almost helpless monarch perform religious ceremonies, he was not in a condition to understand or partake of, and to publish afterwards to the world, that he died in the same faith with that which he himself professed. On Monday morning, the 12th of February 1685, Charles was seized with a sort of apoplectic fit, and continued in a very precarious state till Thursday the 15th, when he had a second attack, and there were no hopes of his recovery.'—

'The letter of Mr. Aprice mentions some particulars which Barillon was not acquainted with, and which Mr. Huddleston might

not think it necessary to communicate to the public. It discloses that the reconciliation of the King to the Church of Rome originated neither in the suggestions of his own conscience, nor any anxiety of the Duchess of Portsmouth about the state of his soul, but was the result of a preconcerted plan. No sooner was Charles recovered from his first attack on the Monday, than the Duke of York began to take precautions, and Mr. Huddleston was commanded to be incessantly in waiting, but an opportunity of making him useful did not present itself till the Thursday following. It is not improbable that the design was kept secret from Barillon, until he was made, as if by accident, a principal agent in the transaction.—That Charles never had manifested his conversion to the Church of Rome, by the performance of any formal act or ceremony, is clear from the dedication of the book before mentioned to the Queen Dowager by Huddleston; for he, mentioning "that conversion of his to the Catholic Church," says, "which your Majesty would look upon as the happiest moment of your own life, as well as of his, *had it not been so near his last.*" An expression used by the Duchess of Portsmouth to Barillon also implies the same thing, and Father Huddleston expressly states that, after he had made a tender of his services, the King declared his desire to "die in the faith, and communion of the holy Roman Catholic Church: that he was most heartily sorry for all his sins of his life past, *and particularly for that he had deferred his reconciliation so long.*"

'Comparing the dates which have been stated, and considering the weak and exhausted state of the King when he is supposed to have gone through so many fatiguing religious ceremonies, it is impossible not to entertain a doubt of his capacity to receive spiritual comfort from them. — In Mr. Aprice's letter we are informed that "he was heard to say little, but begging Almighty God's pardon for all his offences."

'Upon this subject the professional character of Dr. Welwood entitles him to great respect, and he, when discussing the question whether the King died by poison, describes him to have suffered most severely during the whole time of his illness from a racking pain in his stomach, and as pointing to that part as the seat of it, laying his hand there generally, even when insensible, in a moaning posture, and so continued to his death. Moreover, he says that "his fits were so violent that he could not speak when they were upon him, and shewed an aversion to speaking during the intervals," and that "so violent was the pain, that when all hopes were gone the physicians were desired to use all their art to procure him an easy death." Burnet also says, "the King suffered much inwardly, and said he was burnt up within: of which he complained often, but with great decency."

'Adverting to the circumstances narrated in the interested relations of those concerned immediately in this transaction, we are authorized to suspect fraud in every part of it. The suffering and feeble state of the dying monarch did not leave him sufficient strength either of body or mind to form, and still less to express, a wish upon the subject of his faith. He could not resist, or signify his resistance to

the artful persuasions of the Duke, who had acquired a powerful ascendancy over his mind, and had been in the earlier part of his life accustomed to direct his actions. The Duke of York and Duchess of Portsmouth were determined to make him die a Catholic, the plot was laid, the priest was prepared, and when the design was effected, it creates no surprize to learn that a report prevailed of the conversion of the King not being his own spontaneous act, but occasioned by his brother, who had beset him, and forced him to declare himself a Catholic. In the hands of the priest he was only a mere passive instrument; and, if the Duke had importuned him, he must with equal meekness and docility have declared his conversion to any other faith, and submitted to its ordinances.'

Arriving now at the sixth and last section of Serjeant Heywood's book, we here find him led to discuss the subject which formed the ostensible motive for Mr. Rose's publication; we mean the defence of the memory of Sir Patrick Hume, from certain charges introduced into Mr. Fox's history. The circumstances of these charges are as follow. In 1685, when the Duke of Monmouth attacked the newly-established government of James II. by a descent in the west of England, the Earl of Argyle, son of the Marquis of Argyle who was so unjustly executed in 1661, made a similar attempt on the side of Scotland; and Sir Patrick Hume of Polwarth, (the patriot of whose interesting history we gave many particulars in our lixth Vol. N. S. p. 400.) was one of Argyle's associates in this enterprise. The invasion, as it is well known, proved unfortunate; and Argyle, being made prisoner, suffered by a public execution. In a letter prepared for a friend shortly before his death, he lays the blame of defeat in very pointed terms on his associates, but in a subsequent paragraph corrects the asperity of the accusation by confining it to the charge of "not being governable." In both passages, the names of the persons accused are left blank. We extract from Mr. Fox's history (p. 208.) a note inserted by Lord Holland, which contains the passages in Argyle's letter, with a direction for filling up the blanks:

Argyle's Letter.

"..... friends were our greatest enemies, all without exception, with to betray and destroy us; and indeed ..... and ..... were the greatest cause of our rout, and (of) my being taken; though not designedly I acknowledge, yet by ignorance, cowardice, and faction.

"——I am not pleased with myself. I have such hard epithets of some of my countrymen, seeing they are Christians; pray put it out of any account you give; only I must acknowledge, they were not ungovernable, and the humour you found begun, continued."

Lord Holland's Note.

"After an ineffectual research to discover the original MS. Mr. Fox observes in a letter, "*Cochrane* and *Hume* certainly filled up the two

two principal blanks; with respect to the other blank, it is more difficult, but neither is it very material." Accordingly, the blanks in the text, and in the preceding note, may be filled up thus, "(*Cochrane's*) friends were our greatest enemies," &c. "and indeed *Hume* and *Cochrane* were the greatest cause of our rout," &c.

Such is the passage in Mr. Fox's book, which made Mr. Rose consider himself as called to vindicate the memory of Sir Patrick Hume. Having escaped to the continent after Argyle's defeat, Sir Patrick came over with the Prince of Orange at the Revolution, and was rewarded for his zeal and sacrifices with the title of Earl of Marchmont, which descended to his son and grandson, in whom it became extinct. The grandson was, many years ago, a patron of Mr. Rose; and having left to him his family-papers, with an injunction to make use of them "if ever it should be requisite," the insertion of the above-mentioned charge in Mr. Fox's book seemed to Mr. Rose to demand the publication of the memoir of Argyle's expedition, as written by Sir Patrick Hume. Of this memoir, and of Mr. Rose's accompanying observations, we have already expressed our opinion at large, Rev. Vol. lix. N. S. pp. 225. 399. While, on the one hand, Mr. R. has imputed to Mr. Fox a charge of which he is in a great measure innocent, the sympathetic disposition of the latter has led him to delineate the unfortunate Argyle in a manner which implied censure on all who differed from him. The truth is that Argyle was, as we have already stated, (*Ibid.* p. 406.) entirely deficient in the temper and judgment which are required to conduct a difficult enterprise; and his impatience of opposition, his irresolution, and his intractability, were such as to involve the likelihood of failure in every scheme which might be committed to his direction. On the other hand, his courage, his gentleness, and his love of liberty, are calculated to excite our warmest admiration, and appear to have impressed Mr. Fox so strongly as to repell the intrusion of all unfavourable ideas. Here, as in the case of the dispute whether King James aimed first at our liberty or at our religion, a deliberate attention to dates and circumstances will be found to alter materially the charge which has called forth such urgent expostulations from Mr. Rose. To the general virtues of Sir Patrick Hume's character, Mr. Fox bears ample testimony. With respect to the accusations expressed in the above-mentioned extracts, written as they were under bitter impressions on the part of Argyle, a perusal of Sir Patrick's narrative will satisfy us that they are unfounded, and that the root of the evil lay in Argyle's indiscretion. It was unfortunate that Mr. Fox, with all his sollicitude to obtain information, was not aware of the existence of Sir Patrick's memoir; and

and Mr. Rose would perhaps have had no reason to regret his urbanity, if he had communicated it for the historian's contemplation.—After having related the unsuccessful efforts made by Argyle in the expedition, and the retreat of his troops before the royal forces, Mr. Fox says (p. 203.) that Argyle lost all authority, and that, as to farther operations, "Sir Patrick Hume and Sir John Cochrane would not stay even to reason the matter with him whom, at the onset of their expedition, they had engaged to obey, but crossed the Clyde with such as would follow them, to the number of about two hundred, into Renfrewshire."—We learn, from Sir Patrick's narrative, that the parting between Argyle and his friends took place after a conference with Sir John Cochrane. It is some satisfaction to find that Cochrane's general conduct was not marked by opposition, but by easy acquiescence in the views of his unfortunate chief. Sir Patrick did not happen to be present at this final conference, but says,

' "An honest gentleman, who was present, told mee the manner of his parting with the Erle. Argyle being in the roome with Sir John, the gentleman coming in, found confusion in the Erle's countenance and speech: in end he said, Sir John, I pray advise mee what shall I doe: shall I goe over Clide with you, or shall I goe to my owne countrey? Sir John answered, My Lord, I have told you my opinion; you have some Highlanders here about you, it is best you goe to your owne countrey with them, for it is to no purpose for you to goe over Clide. My Lord faire you well; then called the gentleman come away Sir; who followed him when I met with him." In another part of the narrative the story is thus continued. "But I met Sir John with others accompanieing him; who takeing mee by the hand, turned mee, saying my heart goe you with me: whither goe you said I? over Clide by boate said he: I, where is Argyle? I must see him: He, he is gone away to his owne countrey, you cannot see him; I, how comes this change of resolution, and that we went not together to Glasgow! He, it is no time to answer questions, but I shall satisfy you afterward. To the boates wee came, filled two, and rowed over." '

We have thus gone through the leading points of difference between Mr. Rose and his opponent. A long catalogue might be formed, were we to notice the minor charges of inaccuracy brought forwards by the learned Serjeant. In one passage, (p. 204, 205.) he points out a mistake of Mr. Rose in reasoning on Lord Holland's observations, as if they were those of Mr. Fox. In another, (p. 50.) we are informed that Mr. Rose, in citing Ludlow's memoirs, introduced that writer as saying that "authority was given to sell the estates of the Crown and the Church;" whereas Ludlow, on examination, will be found to

to speak of estates formerly belonging to the "deans and chapters." These corrections we give as brief specimens of a large stock of a similar description, which are interspersed (pp. 48. 54. 104. 149. 163, &c. &c.) throughout the volume. — On this formidable list of contradictory arguments, we have two observations to make; first, that it was highly imprudent in Mr. Rose, when engaged in reprehending Mr. Fox, to lay himself open to such serious animadversions; and, secondly, that it is to be regretted that the learned Serjeant should have treated matters of secondary importance at so much length. The sole object of consequence was to vindicate Mr. Fox, by demonstrating the inaccuracy of the charges brought against him; and, after having taken the pains to do this at full length in a few of the most interesting cases, the others might have been discussed with brevity. Wherever the proof was not necessary to the chain of general argument, the particular instance of error might have been consigned to the Notes or the Appendix. The text would thus have been relieved from a mass of cumbrous materials, and the learned author might have had the gratification of anticipating a wider circulation of his work. — Amid all the accusations and contradictions in these adverse quartos, it is satisfactory to find that neither champion brings forwards a charge of intentional mis-statement. Mr. Rose had pronounced a very clear negative to that effect with regard to Mr. Fox; and Serjeant Heywood repeatedly declares (p. 104, &c.) that 'no intentional deviation from the strict line of rectitude is imputed' to Mr. Rose.

We now turn from these alterations to the more pleasant task of extracting, from Serjeant Heywood's volume, a few remarks which are fitted to throw light on interesting points of history. He discusses (p. 125.) the question how far Lord Clarendon had been accessary to the receipt by Charles of secret payments from the court of France. Sir John Dalrymple has broadly asserted that, "In an evil hour for Charles, Clarendon had taught him, in the very first years of his reign, to receive money from France, unknown to his people." The Clarendon papers having been published since Dalrymple wrote, Serjeant Heywood is enabled to qualify this assertion; and to shew that Lord Clarendon, with an indifference to money which was by no means usual among the ministers of that age, refused the offer made personally to himself. As to the offers made to Charles, we can trace the wayward influence of that monarch's dishonesty on the conduct of his minister, though it does not appear that Clarendon became the channel for the receipt of any other sum than the purchase-money of Dunkirk. The substance of

of the papers relative to this topic, in the Clarendon collection, is as follows:

'In March 1661, Bastide, the French minister, in an interview with Lord Clarendon, offered him by virtue of orders from his court, as a present for himself, the sum of 10,000l. On the 17th April, in a letter from Bastide was inclosed a slip of paper, offering that or a larger sum, beginning in this manner. "If your Lordship hath occasion, for the furthering or promoting the King of England's, and your own interest, at the next Parliament, or for any other end, &c." On the next day, Clarendon, in a letter to Bastide in consequence of that inclosure, stated that the temper of the parliament was expected to be friendly, but the asking of money was intended to be deferred, till some other things of greater importance had been obtained, and in consequence the King might be in some difficulty, and then asked, "do you believe if the King desires it, that the King of France will lend him 50,000 for ten or twelve months, in which time it shall be punctually repaid," and if such a proposition was unseasonable, he undertook to prevent its being made. After this, Clarendon endeavoured to procure from France some pecuniary assistance for the war of Portugal, which he says Charles was unable alone to defray. In answer, 9th August 1661, Bastide says, "the King of England may be sure of 1,800,000 French livres or 2,000,000 for these two or three years," and in that month the latter sum had been agreed upon. No part of this sum was ever paid, and the affairs of Portugal, and the King's necessities becoming urgent, Clarendon negotiated the sale of Dunkirk to France, which there is some reason to suspect was a measure he neither proposed nor approved of. However, as minister, he conducted the negotiation, and in September 1662, it was settled, that Charles was to receive 5,000,000 of livres.'

Let us next advert to the value of the addition made to our historical documents by the researches of Mr. Fox at Paris in 1802. Finding that the parts of Barillon's correspondence, which his predecessor in inquiry, Sir John Dalrymple, had omitted to extract or to publish, were often interesting, he procured copies of the whole; and he was so gratified by this acquisition of official information, that he observed in a letter to a correspondent, "My studies at Paris have been successful beyond what I can describe." In speaking familiarly to Lord Holland on this subject, his remark was that "Barillon's letters were worth their weight in gold." Of these letters, above forty of the number printed in Mr. Fox's Appendix are altogether new to the public. All these relate to the year 1685: but, as Mr. Fox's researches embraced all the material part of Barillon's communications to the end of 1688, we have the satisfaction of knowing that we possess in this country the vouchers for the whole transactions of the infatuated James with the French court, till the time of his abdication.

A third

A third remark on the subject of historical documents relates to the publication of a memoir of the reign of James II. drawn up by the first Earl of Lonsdale, a nobleman who was united in politics with the Whigs, and stood deservedly high in their confidence. This interesting tract has been printed at the expence of the present Lord Lonsdale, and distributed among his friends, but not published for sale *. It tends to relieve from obscurity several disputed points of this period; and, in particular, the circumstances attendant on the passing of the bill in June 1685 for the preservation of the King's person on the landing of Monmouth. With regard to this bill, the memoir of Lord Londsdale is found (Heywood, p. 230.) to be more accurate than the Journals of the House of Commons.

In conclusion, it is scarcely necessary for us to observe that it is desirable for every reader and possessor of Mr. Fox's History, and Mr. Rose's Observations on that work, to combine with them the valuable supplement which has been supplied by Serjeant Heywood in the volume before us.

ART. IV. *The Family Legend:* a Tragedy. By Joanna Baillie. 8vo. 3s. 6d. Longman and Co. 1810.

ART. V. *A Series of Plays;* in which it is attempted to delineate the stronger Passions of the Mind. By Joanna Baillie. Vol. III. 8vo. 9s. Boards. Longman and Co. 1812.

OF those authors who have written plays for the closet, and have addressed their dramas rather to the reader than the spectator, Miss Baillie has been one of the most eminently and deservedly popular. More impressive in tragedy than in comedy, more natural in the delineation of feminine than of masculine personages, she yet displays a versatile command of emotion, and a comprehensive range of character. Her diction is antiquated, lofty, well supported, and gemmed with beauties: her imaginary scene is various and showy: her incidents, if far-fetched, are original; her situations, if strange, are trying; and her plots, if improbable, are busy, intricate, and complete.

Perhaps, however, Miss Baillie is usually more fortunate in unfolding than in unravelling her fable,—in the preparation than in the solution of events. The opening is gradual, and excites curiosity, but the conclusion is more often tumultuous than critical; so that, after preliminary scenes of considerable warmth, the catastrophe itself sometimes borders on frigidity. We find no continual climax of emotion, but a stopping short

* See our Review for June 1809, Vol. lix. p. 113.

at

egree of agitation which does not overstep propriety
. Anger seems to be taught to look in the mirror,
ould scowl. The heroes and heroines are not children
, but of discipline: the Princes and Princesses have
l Presbyterian preceptors: they are educated gentlemen
s, who, with tendencies to the boisterous passions,
hem in any emergency so dutifully and politely, that
is lost in admiration. A character which is the
f simplicity marks alike the language and the design
dramas. They are a monument of refinement, con-
not with Greek plainness, but with florid Gothic art
ere bedizened. To the stirring of the great passions,
be always hostile. In depicting and dwelling on the
of a polished woman, Miss Baillie wisely delights:
is is then most animated, most communicative, and
arest to pathos and to nature; her voice of song softens,
e warbled cadences of skill are interrupted, and the
tone of feeling wails aloud.—Is self-observation the
mimetic art?

Miss Baillie's other works, the *Family Legend* was
d on the theatre at Edinburgh before it was given to
. This circumstance seems to announce a change,
ur judgment an imprudent change, of career; the
skill hitherto displayed by the author being less proper
tage than the study. Qualities, which fit a play for
ation, differ widely from those which adapt it for
erusal. In consequence of poring over the dramatists
ime of James the First, Miss Baillie has accustomed
o a diction so obsolete, that the reader is often obliged
e a passage twice, and sometimes to look into the
before it can be understood. For this deliberation
ch, a person in a closet or a library has leisure and
ity: but, before an audience, every thing should be
e to *instantaneity of impression*. In order that sympathy
uble the rapture or the woe, the whole assembly must
to vibrate at the same moment with the same feeling.
ny thing that is antiquated or peculiar in dialect, which
telligibility, should be there proscribed; and not only the
of the time, but of common life, must be employed in
sage which aims at public effect. Nothing that shocks
by its difficulty, or its novelty, or even by its harsh-
n be expedient among the many; yet the versification
air dramatist is often painfully inharmonious, hardly
of being scanned, and displeases when pronounced
In the language of the theatre, the expression of every
ought to be not merely distinct, but obvious; the

object should be magnified, *colossalized*, (if we may coin such an expression,) into conspicuousness. Like the pictured passions of Le Brun, those of the play-house ought somewhat to caricature nature, in order to be instantly and definitely visible and distinguishable. Recondite beauties of any kind, and latent felicities of allusion or comparison, however gratifying to the refined reader, are, on the stage, in reality, defects. The style of Miss Baillie, so perpetually admirable for its brilliancy in the perusal, and so well adapted for epic poety, has too uniform an elevation for the theatre. All the personages *talk fine*; and in those subordinate scenes, which, if essential to the plan of the piece, are superfluous to the spectator's impatience, we still discover a squandering of the arts of composition, and a constant diffusion of beauties of detail, which delay the action and tease the listener. To the reader, on the contrary, this lingering procession of ingenious similies and sensible observations is a welcome defence against flatness: he can turn back his leaves, and would be displeased by any inequality between the parts of the poem.

The dramatist should unceasingly direct an exclusive attention to that public which he selects to judge of his appeal, and should fundamentally vary his manner according as he addresses a congregated or a scattered multitude. In writing for the stage, let him be concise, and prefer the simplicities of phraseology: in writing for the closet, he should be complete, and prefer the refinements of diction. For representation, he may neglect, — for perusal, he should polish, — the subordinate parts. Rapid composition acts best; and elaborate composition reads best. To please at the theatre requires more genius; to please in the closet requires more art.

The story of the *Family Legend* is thus related in Miss Baillie's own preface:

'In the fifteenth century, a feud had long subsisted between the Lord of Argyll and the Chieftain of Maclean; the latter was totally subdued by the Campbells, and Maclean * sued for peace, demanding, at the same time, in marriage, the young and beautiful daughter of Argyll. His request was granted, and the lady carried home to the island of Mull. There she had a son, but the Macleans were hostile to this alliance with the Campbells. — They swore to desert their chief if they were not suffered to put his wife to death, with her infant son, who was then at nurse, that the blood of the Campbells might not succeed to the inheritance of Maclean. Maclean resisted these threats, fearing the power and vengeance of Argyll: but, at length, fear for his own life, should he refuse the demands of his clan, made him yield to their fury, and he only drew from them

'* Called in the representation Duart.'

a pro-

a promise that they would not shed her blood. One dark winter night she was forced into a boat, and, regardless of her cries and lamentations, left upon a barren rock, midway between the coasts of Mull and Argyll, which, at high-water, is covered with the sea. As she was about to perish, she saw a boat steering its course at some distance; she waved her hand, and uttered a feeble cry. She was now upon the top of the rock, and the water as high as her breast, so that the boatmen mistook her for a large bird. They took her, however, from the rock, and, knowing her to be the daughter of Argyll, carried her to the castle of her father.

'The Earl rewarded her deliverers, and desired them to keep the circumstance secret for a time, during which he concealed her till he should hear tidings from Mull.—Maclean solemnly announced her death to Argyll, and soon came himself with his friends all in mourning, to condole with the Earl at his castle. Argyll received him, clad also in black. Maclean was full of lamentations; the Earl appeared very sorrowful; a feast was served with great pomp in the hall; every one took his place, while a seat was left empty on the right hand of Argyll; the door opened, and they beheld the Lady of Maclean enter, superbly dressed, to take her place at the table. Maclean stood for a moment aghast, when, the servants and retainers making a lane for him to pass through the hall to the gate of the castle, the Earl's son, the Lord of Lorne, followed him, and slew him as he fled. His friends were detained as hostages for the child, who had been preserved by the affection of his nurse.'

This anecdote is certainly a good basis for a dramatic fable: but, for the sake of preserving inviolate the Lady Helen's reputation, some of its advantages have injudiciously been missed. The first and second acts suffer from the obvious improbability of that barbarous ferocity which is needlessly and calumniously imputed to the Highlanders:—against sex, beneficence, and virtue, superstition does not so rebel. The atrocious conspiracy to banish Helen is throughout ill-motived; and jealousy in Maclean would have been an adequate cause of his consent to her being exposed on the rock. Moreover, the deliverance of the lady, in the third and fourth act, is too accidental. That her brother and her lover should be together at sea, just in the right spot and at the right tide, might in an epic poem be referred to the providence of interfering divinities, but transcends the range of the luckiest human casualty. The drama, says Schiller in the preface to Fiesco, cannot tolerate the hand of chance. Again, in this instance, if Helen's virtue had been described as somewhat indecisive, a motive would have been provided for her lover's hovering about the coast in a bark. If her sufferings, and the strife of the chiefs, had grown out of a culpable indecision for virtue on her part, a still higher degree of pity, which perfect characters are too sublime to excite,

would have been aroused; and the more important lesson of morality would have been inculcated, that, "where Queens fail, nations fall."—The final situation is well contrived, when Helen seats herself veiled at her father's table to receive the visit of condolence; and the scenic picture is stately, magnificent, well-grouped, and full of terrific apprehension. Indeed, this catastrophe would be exquisite, but for the incident of the child, which is worse than superfluous. The solution might have appeared satisfactory, had there been no child: now the doubt occurs, can this child justly be brought up by the father's foes, and inherit the father's rights?

The fable of *Orra*, the first tragedy in the 3d volume of Miss Baillie's series, is less praise-worthy. This heroine is under the dominion of superstitious fear; and her guardian, desirous of influencing her to marry his son, most absurdly sends her to a haunted house. She is frightened by the banditti who lurk there, and delivered by her lover, who assumes the disguise of the master-ghost that is described by credulity. If the solution of the ensuing tragedy had been employed in this, and Orra had died of fear, a something would have happened tragical enough for the preparation, which rivals in terrifying mechanism the romances of Mrs. Radcliffe. *Heureusement, on en est quitte pour la peur;* unless we are to infer that the derangement of Orra is become permanent; a disagreeable idea, and undramatic, because inconclusive.

The *Dream* is a more interesting tragedy. A corse has been privately buried in the cemetery of Saint Maurice's monastery in Swisserland. It is rumoured that the Austrian General Count Osterloo will halt there on his march. A monk, not uninstructed by the confessional, dreams that a grave of guilt is in such a spot; and, on its being opened, a murdered man is discovered who has but one hand. Circumstances accumulate; and step by step it is ascertained that the body is that of the Prior's brother, and that the murderer is Osterloo. The General arrives; and the convent having a sovereign jurisdiction, he is seized, tried, condemned, and led to execution. The imperial ambassador rescues him, but he is dead of fear!

In a brave General-officer, this death arising out of fear is very unlikely; and we should have preferred the obvious solution of an effectual rescue. The remorse which had been felt, and the public trial which had been undergone, were sufficient poetical punishments for a crime that had been provoked by the seduction of the wife of Osterloo; and death from any internal cause will better bear narration than exhibition. Much philosophy is displayed in accounting for the apparently-supernatural dream.

The *Siege* is a ridiculous comedy, intended to warn middle-aged batchelors against that *cullibility* of which interested women, who practise blandishment and flattery, are often seen to make a market. The odd improbability of any company contriving a mock attack to interrupt a *fête champêtre*, and of an enemy undertaking a real attack on the same night and during the same festival, is too ponderous and awkward a machine for the trifling purpose which it answers, in exhibiting the cowardice of Valdemere.—A misprint in the catalogue of persons gives the name of Antonia to the hero of the piece; and the error recurs in the dialogue.

The *Beacon*, which is the last, is incomparably the most affecting and most beautiful drama in this collection; it is, indeed, an elegant work of art, worthy of Miss Baillie's high and established reputation. We doubt not that it will pass into the languages and climb the theatres of the continent; though it may undergo some compression in the process.

Aurora, a Maltese heiress, loves and is beloved by Ermingard, who followed the crusaders to the Holy Land. Ulric the lord of the island, and her legal guardian, is also in love with her, and endeavours to extort her consent by spreading news of the death of Ermingard, and by enforcing the privileges of rank and power. Suspicions, however, are entertained by Aurora, that Ermingard is endeavouring to return; and she constantly feeds a beacon, which she hopes is to guide him into port. A legate of the Pope at last arrives, with Knights of Jerusalem in his train, and among them is Ermingard: but the meeting of the lovers is imbittered by the discovery that Ermingard, deceived by a report that Ulric was married to Aurora, had taken vows of celibacy. The Pope's legate, however, finally interferes to depose Ulric from his governorship, and to promise a dispensation to Ermingard.

The sanguine character of Aurora is well depicted in the following fine scene:

'*Terentia.* Still run the thoughts upon those hapless women
Of that small hamlet, whose advent'rous peasants
To Palestine with noble Baldwin went,
And ne'er were heard of more?
'*Aurora.* They perish'd there; and of their dismal fate
No trace remain'd—none of them all return'd.
Did'st thou not say so?—Husbands, lovers, friends,—
Not one return'd again.
'*Ter.* So I believe.———
'*Aur.* Thou but believest then?
'*Ter.* As I was told———
'*Edda.* Thou hast the story wrong.

Four years gone by, one did return again;
But marr'd, and maim'd, and changed, — a woeful man.

'*Aur.* And what tho' every limb were hack'd and maim'd,
And roughen'd o'er with scars?—he did return.
(*Rising lightly from her seat.*)
I would a pilgrimage to Iceland go,
To the Antipodes or burning zone
To see that man, who did return again,
And her, who did receive him.—Did receive him!
O what a moving thought lurks here! — How was't?
Tell it me all: and Oh, another time,
Give me your tale ungarbled. —

'*Enter* VIOLA.

Ha! Viola! 'tis my first sight of thee
Since our long vigil. Thou hast had, I hope,
A sound and kindly sleep. ——

'*Viol.* Kindly enough, but somewhat cross'd with dreams.

'*Aur.* How cross'd? What was thy dream? O tell it me!
I have an ear that craves for every thing
That hath the smallest sign or omen in it.
It was not sad?

'*Viol.* Nay, rather strange; methought
A christ'ning feast within your bower was held;
But when the infant to the font was brought,
It proved a full-grown man, in armour clad.

'*Aur.* A full-grown man. (*Considering for a moment, and then holding up her hands*)
O blessing on thy dream!
From death to life restor'd is joyful birth.
It is, it is! Come to my heart, sweet maid! (*Embracing* Viola.)
A blessing on thyself and on thy sleep!
I feel a kindling life within me stir,
That doth assure me it has shadow'd forth
A joy that soon shall be.

'*Ter.* So may it prove!
But trust not such vain fancies, nor appear
Too much elated; for unhappy Ulrick
Swears that your Beacon, after this night's watch,
Shall burn no more.

'*Aur.* He does! Then will we have
A noble fire. This night our lofty blaze
Shall thro' the darkness shoot full many a league
Its streamy rays, like to a bearded star
Preceding changeful — aye, and better times.
It may in very truth. — O if his bark
(For many a bark within its widen'd reach
The dark seas traverse) should its light descry!
Should this be so — it may; perhaps it will.

O that

at it might! — We'll have a rousing blaze!
: me your hands. (*Taking* Viola *and* Terentia *gaily by the hands.*)
So lightly bounds my heart,
uld like midnight goblins round the flame
uly orgies hold. —— Ha! think ye not,
n to the font our mail-clad infant comes,
ck will a right gracious gossip prove?
, nay, Terentia, look not so demure,
eds must laugh. ——————
Ter. Indeed you let your fancy wildly run;
disappointment will the sharper be.
Aur. Talk not of disappointment: be assur'd
e late intelligence doth Ulrick prompt
hese stern orders. On our sea there sails,
oon will sail, some vessel which right gladly
would permit to founder on the coast,
iss its course. But no; it will not be:
ite of all his hatred, to the shore,
' seas as dark as subterraneous night
ll arrive in safety.
Ter. Nay, sweet Aurora, feed not thus thy wishes
wild unlikely thoughts; for Ulrick surely
ch intelligence hath had, and thou
nak'st thy after-sorrow more acute
n these vain fancies fail.
Aur. And let them fail! Tho' duller thoughts succeed,
bliss e'en of a moment, still is bliss.
Viol. (*to* Ter.) Thou would'st not of her dew-drops spoil the thorn
use her glory will not last till noon;
still the lightsome gambols of the colt,
se neck to morrow's yoke will gall. Fye on't!
is be wise, 'tis cruel. ——
Aur. Thanks, gentle Viola! Thou art ever kind.
I think to-morrow still hath good in store,
make of this a blessing for to-day,
good Terentia there may chide us for it,
Ter. And thus, a profitable life you'll lead,
h hath no present time, but is made up
ely of to-morrows.
Aur. Well, taunt me as thou wilt, I'll worship still
blessed morrow, store-house of all good
retched folks. They who lament to-day,
then rejoice; They who in misery bend
to the earth, be then in honour robed.
who shall reckon what its brighten'd hours
of returning joy contain? To-morrow!
blest to-morrow! Cheering, kind to-morrow!
re a heathen not to worship thee.
Ter.) Frown not again; we must not wrangle now,

'*Ter.* Thou dost such vain and foolish fancies cherish;
Thou forcest me to seem unkind and stern.
'*Aur.* Ah! be not stern. Edda will sing the song
That makes feet beat and heads nod to its tune;
And even grave Terentia will be moved
To think of pleasant things.

'SONG.

'Wish'd-for gales the light vane veering,
Better dreams the dull night cheering;
Lighter heart the morning greeting,
Things of better omen meeting;
Eyes each passing stranger watching,
Ears each feeble rumour catching,
Say he existeth still on earthly ground,
The absent will return, the long, long lost be found.

'In the tower the ward-bell ringing,
In the court the carols singing;
Busy hands the gay board dressing,
Eager steps the threshold pressing,
Open'd arms in haste advancing,
Joyful looks thro' blind tears glancing;
The gladsome bounding of his aged hound,
Say he in truth is here, our long, long lost is found.

'Hymned thanks and beedsmen praying,
With sheath'd sword the urchin playing;
Blazon'd hall with torches burning,
Cheerful morn in peace returning;
Converse sweet that strangely borrows
Present bliss from former sorrows,
O who can tell each blessed sight and sound,
That says, he with us bides, our long, long lost is found.

'*Aur.* (*who at first nods her head lightly to the measure, now bursts into tears, taking* Edda's *hand between hers, and pressing them gratefully,*)
I thank thee; this shall be our daily song.
It cheers my heart, altho' these foolish tears
Seem to disgrace its sweetness.

'*Enter* Page.

'*Viol.* (*to* Aur.) Here comes your Page with lightly bounding steps,
As if he brought good tidings?
'*Ed.* Grant he may!
'*Aur.* (*eagerly*) What brings thee hither, Boy!
'*Page* (*to* Aur.) A noble stranger of the legate's train,
Come from the Holy Land, doth wait without,
Near to the garden gate, where I have left him,
He begs to be admitted to your presence;
Pleading for such indulgence as the friend
Of Ermingard; for so he bade me say.
'*Aur.* The friend of Ermingard! The Holy Land!

(*Pausing*

(Pausing for a moment, and then tossing up her arms in ecstacy.)
O God! It is himself!
(Runs eagerly some steps towards the garden, then catching hold of Terentia, *who follows her)*
My head is dizzy grown; I cannot go.
Haste, lead him hither, Boy.
(Waving her hand impatiently)
Fly; hear'st thou not? [Exit Page.
' *Ter.* Be not so greatly mov'd. It is not likely
This should be Ermingard. The boy has seen him,
And would have known him. 'Tis belike some friend.
' *Aur.* No; every thrilling fibre of my frame
Cries out "It is himself." *(Looking out.)*
He comes not yet; how strange! how dull! how tardy!
' *Ter.* Your Page hath scarce had time to reach the gate,
Tho' he hath run right quickly.
' *Aur. (Pausing and looking out)*
He comes not yet. Ah! if it be not he,
My sinking heart misgives me.
O now he comes! the size and air are his.
' *Ter.* Not to my fancy: there is no resemblance.
' *Aur.* Nay but there is. And see, he wears his cloak
As he was wont to do; and o'er his cap
The shading plume so hangs.—It is! it is!
(Enter Garcio, *and she, breaking from* Terentia, *runs towards him.)*
My lost, my found, my blest! conceal thee not.
(Going to catch him in her arms, when Garcio *takes off his plumed cap and bows profoundly: she utters a faint cry, and shrinks back.)*
' *Gar.* Lady, I see this doff'd cap hath discover'd
A face less welcome than the one you look'd for.
Pardon a stranger's presence; I've presumed
Thus to intrude, as friend of Ermingard,
Who bade me ———
' *Aur.* Bade thee! is he then at hand?
' *Gar.* Ah, would he were!
'Twas in a hostile and a distant land,
He did commit to me these precious tokens,
Desiring me to give them to Aurora,
And with them too, his sad and last farewel.
' *Aur.* And he is dead!
' *Gar.* Nay, wring not thus your hands:
He was alive and well when he entrusted me
With what I now return.
(Offering her a small casket.)
' *Aur.* Alive and well, and sends me back my tokens!
' *Gar.* He sent them back to thee as Ulrick's wife;
For such, forc'd by intelligence from hence
Of strong authority, he did believe thee:

And in that fatal fight, which shortly follow'd,
He fought for death as shrewdly as for fame.
Fame he indeed hath earn'd.
'*Aur.* But not the other?
Ah do not say he has! Amongst the slain
His body was not found.
'*Gar.* As we have learnt, the Knights of blest St. John
Did from the field of dying and of wounded
Many convey, who in their house of charity
All care and solace had; but with the names,
Recorded as within their walls receiv'd,
His is not found; therefore we must account him
With those, who, shrouded in an unknown fate,
Are as the dead lamented, as the dead,
For ever from our worldly care dismiss'd.
'*Aur.* Lamented he shall be; but from my care
Dismiss'd as are the dead—that is impossible.
'*Ter.* Nay, listen to advice so wise and needful;
It is the friend of Ermingard who says,
Let him within thy mind be as the dead.
'*Aur.* My heart repels the thought: it cannot be.
No; till his corse bereft of life is found;
Till this is sworn, and prov'd, and witness'd to me,
Within my breast he shall be living still.
'*Ter.* Wilt thou yet vainly watch night after night
To guide his bark who never will return?
'*Aur.* Who never will return! And thinkest thou
To bear me down with such presumptuous words?
Heaven makes me strong against thee.
There is a Power above, that calms the storm;
Restrains the mighty; gives the dead to life:—
I will in humble faith my watch still keep;
Force only shall restrain me.
'*Gar.* Force never shall, thou noble, ardent Spirit!
Thy gen'rous confidence would almost tempt me
To think it will be justified.
'*Aur.* Ha! say'st thou so? A blessing rest upon thee
For these most cheering words! Some guardian power
Whispers within thee. —— No; we'll not despair.'

Some blemishes adhere to the minor incidents of this piece. Why should Ulric threaten to prevent the lighting up of the beacon? To supply a light-house with fuel is a public service, a pious office, a benefit to the community. Such things are not prohibited by sovereigns, even if they suspect that personal affections have suggested the sollicitude.—That the legate should arrive, and Ermingard arrive, and in separate vessels, on the very day on which the beacon was destined to burn no more, is a bold and needless violation of probability. Ermingard could no where have been placed more naturally than in the legate's train. Still, purchased as the situations may be by rash fictions, they

they are exquisitely and delightfully interesting, and call forth that kind and that degree of emotion which Miss Baillie has especially at command. The pageantry of the scene, however, though imagined with picturesque and romantic effect, is wanting in progressive magnificence. In all plays, the locality ought to shift at least with every act, the tiresome effect of unvarying decorations being notorious: but some care should be taken to secure a climax of spectacle, and to place the concluding parts of the action amid the more splendid scenery. Here the first act happens in a room; and the second act opens at the beacon's foot, whence the fire reveals a view of the sea and of steep cliffs which the procession of knights ascends. This spectacle is so striking, that the subsequent return to the lady's chamber must operate as a disappointment to the eye of every spectator. The languor of ordinary scenery becomes annoying, after the exhibition of stimulant landscape. Had we been forming this play, we should either have placed the legate in the vestibule of the cathedral, and have taken the lovers thither to receive the promise of the dispensation, or have managed to wind up the story on the sublime spot at which Aurora and Ermingard first meet; and, as the action languishes after their first interview, the dialogue required a preference of this policy. Miss Baillie will one day retouch her productions, and expunge what is superfluous: she, who pleases so highly the polished and the good, deserves to please for successive generations.

Art. VI. *Archæologia:* or Miscellaneous Tracts relating to Antiquity. Published by the Society of Antiquaries of London. Vol. XVI. Part 2. 4to. pp. 224. and 60 Plates. 2l. 2s. sewed. White, Nicol, &c. 1812.

The second part of this volume, of which we announced the first in our number for October last, is not only superior in bulk when compared with the former, but contains matters of more importance and interest. We shall notice the subject of each paper; and though our report will occupy more pages than we can conveniently spare, it probably will not be sufficiently ample to satisfy the learned reader. The first memoir in this second portion, being the 20th in the volume, is intitled,

Ordinances respecting Swans in the River Witham, in the County of Witham: together with an original Roll of Swan Marks, appertaining to the Proprietors on the said Stream; communicated by Sir Joseph Banks, Bart., &c.—The first of these rolls is dated June 1570, 12th Elizabeth, and contains regulations for the

the preservation and marking of swans. At present, these ordinances respecting swans may excite no great curiosity: but they have enabled the ingenious and learned Mr. Weston, in a subjoined note, to detect two vulgar *Slipslopisms*, and by this detection both to inform and amuse the reader:

'It appears (says he) in these Swan-rolls, that the King's Swans were doubly marked, and had what was called two nicks, or notches. The term, in process of time, not being understood, a double animal was invented, unknown to the Egyptians and Greeks, with the name of the Swan with two Necks: but this is not the only ludicrous mistake that has arisen out of the subject, since *Swan-upping*, or the taking up of Swans, performed annually by the swan companies, with the Lord Mayor of London at their head, for the purposes of marking them, has been changed by an unlucky asperite, into *Swan-hopping*, which is not to the purpose, and perfectly unintelligible.'

Some Account of the Trial of the Pix. By the Rev. Rogers Ruding, B. D. F. A. S.—Though the very sight of regal *coin* is at present almost unknown, we trust that the time is not far distant when it will come again into fashion, and when the trials here explained for ascertaining the purity of monies coined at the mint will be resumed. Now, *Bank-tokens* do the duty of the King's coin: but, when gold and silver stamped with "the image and superscription of Cæsar" shall resume their wonted circulation, we shall read with additional interest these details of Mr. Ruding on *the trial of the Pix*. The subject, though important, is little known, and we are obliged to this gentleman for the particulars which are here detailed. We find that our ancestors, in the wise jealousy with which they guarded the integrity of the coins, adopted effectual expedients for this purpose. 'Their utmost care,' continues Mr. R., 'was exerted to preserve the standard inviolate, by assays made within the Mint, in the presence of officers who were mutual checks on each other: and before the monies were allowed to be issued, they were submitted to the public trial of a jury, composed of men, who, by their professional knowledge, were well qualified to decide on their purity, and who were bound by a solemn oath to return a true verdict.' We cannot read this sentence without adverting to the state of our present current medium, and asking to what trial the Bank-tokens are submitted, or according to what standard of purity they are issued? The trial of royal coins, of which Mr. R. gives the history, was an open examination; and it technically derived its name from the *pix* or *box*, in which the coins selected for examination are contained, and which is secured by three locks, the keys of which are in the keeping of the Warden, the Master, and the Comptroller of the Mint. He informs us that, though

though we are not apprized that the antients had any such trial, it is of old date; and mention is made of it in the 9th and 10th year of Edward I., as a mode well known and in common usage:

'The earliest notice which has occurred, in which the judgment of professional artists was required to sanction, as a jury, the judgment of the court, is dated in the thirty-seventh of Elizabeth, when a trial was held in the Star Chamber.'

The modern practice is thus detailed:

'Upon a memorial being presented by the Master of the Mint, praying for a Trial of the Pix, the Chancellor of the Exchequer moves his Majesty, in Council, to that purpose. A summons is then issued to certain Members of the Privy Council, to meet at the house which is now allotted to the office of Receiver of the Fees in his Majesty's Exchequer, at eleven o'clock in the forenoon, on a certain day. A precept is likewise directed by the Lord High Chancellor, to the Wardens of the Goldsmiths' Company, requiring them to nominate, and set down, the names of a competent number of sufficient and able freemen of their company, skilful to judge of, and to present the defaults of the coins, if any should be found, to be of the jury, to attend at the same time and place. This number is usually twenty-five, of which the Assay Master of the company is always one.

'When the court is formed, the clerk of the Goldsmiths' Company returns the precept, together with the list of names; the jury is called over, and twelve persons are sworn. The president then gives his charge, which used formerly to be general, like the oath, to examine by fire, by water, by touch, or by weight, or by all, or by some of them, in the most just manner, whether the monies were made according to the indenture, and standard trial pieces, and within the remedies. But in 1754, the Lord High Chancellor Talbot directed the jury to express precisely how much the money was within the remedies; and the practice which he thus enjoined is still continued. The other parts of the charge necessarily vary according to the ability of the president, and his knowledge of the subject.

'When it is concluded, the Pix is delivered to the jury, and the court is commonly adjourned to the house of the President, where the verdict is afterwards delivered.

'The jury then retire to the court room of the Duchy of Lancaster, whither the Pix is removed, together with the weights of the Exchequer and Mint, and where the scales which are used upon this occasion are suspended, the beam of which is so delicate, that it will turn with six grains, when loaded with the whole of those weights, to the amount of 48*lb.* 8*oz.* in each scale.

'The jury being seated, the indenture, or the warrant under which the Master has acted, is read. Then the Pix is opened, and the money which had been taken out of each delivery, and enclosed in a paper parcel under the seals of the Warden, Master, and Comptroller of the Mint, is given into the hands of the foreman, who reads aloud the

not explain the Punic character over the back of the lion. This letter, observes Mr. W., is the Phœnician Ghimel, the initial letter of Gadir; and which, with the Gaditane Hercules on the right side, leads him to conclude that this coin (which weighs nearly 112 grains, is in good preservation, and of fine workmanship,) was struck at Gades, by a colony from Africa, which Pliny tells us the Greeks called Lybia: "*Africam Græci Lybiam appellavere.*" This curious relic of antiquity is said, at p. 15., to be in the possession of Mr. Miles, of Tavistock-street.—That unique rarity, which Mr. W. pronounces to be a coin of Edessa, is of gold, weighs about 81 grains, or 3 dwt. 9 grs. and is in the possession of Lord Valentia, who procured it at Lucknow in exchange for the money of the country. 'On one side it has a head with a cap or tiara like that with which Abgarus is always depicted on the imperial money: on the reverse is a whole-length figure of the sun, with a radiated head, worshipped at Edessa; to the left is a date of two hundred and fifteen; and to the right is the word MIPPO in Greek letters, signifying either the son of Edessa, or the Prince.' Mr. W. arrives at this conclusion by the help of the Eastern languages. '*Mihr*, or *Muhr*, in Persian, means the sun; and *Meer*, in the same language, a Prince or Emperor. *Roha* is the old name of Edessa, formerly called Urhoi, the Sun's fire, light. The Greeks prefixed KAAAI, and made the word their own.' As to the appearance of Arabic words on an oriental coin in Greek letters, he observes that this is not without precedent. He concludes with confidently pronouncing 'this coin to be of the fifth King of Edessa, and the second after the Parthian conquest of Mesopotamia.'

Of the Samaritan coin, Mr. W. remarks that its reverse is unlike any Samaritan coin which he has ever seen. On it may be read distinctly the words *Mattatia hegené*, *Azoth Segol*, 'which mean that this coin was struck at Azoth Segol, Mattatia being hegené, or hege, or magistrate of the Persians: the addition of Segol, or Queen, to Azoth, is on account of Aza, Queen or consort of the first settler or founder of the place, on his return from the Red Sea.' This coin was struck by Antigonus, King of Judæa, on his advancement to the crown by the aid of the Parthians, and bears on the obverse a wreath inclosing some illegible letter or letters, and the inscription ANTIΓONOY.—Cyparissia, the place to which the coin last noticed by Mr. W. belonged, was in Messenia, near the coast, and was one of those towns that were permitted by the Emperors to be autonomous, or to live under their own laws. Speaking of the coin, which is of middle brass, and is unpublished, he says:

'The

'The coins of Cyparissia are mostly imperial, and Sestini says (the best authority for Greek cities) always so; but here is an exception. On the right side is probably a head of Bacchus, with a lock on the forehead, disposed like a horn, with which that god is represented, "Accedant capiti cornua Bacchus eris." Behind the head is Roma, in Greek letters. On the reverse is a figure standing, with a branch in its right hand, and a quiver at its back. Before it, from top to bottom, are three inscriptions; first KOI for KOINON, next two dates, AA. KE. 31. 25. Behind it is KYΠΑΡΙΣΣΙΑ; and under the name of the town a monogram of K kappa, alpha. Koι points out the concordia at different periods with imperial Rome, of which the dates are recorded.'

Copies of an original Letter from K. Henry VIII. to Sir Nicholas Carew, Knt., Dr. Sampson, and Dr. Benet, his Ambassadors to the Emperor.—An Indenture between the same King and Sir Gilbert Talbot, and others.—Sir Walter Raleigh's Account of his Voyage to Guiana.—And a Letter from K. Charles the First to the Earl of Nottingham, and others. All of them in the Possession of Richard Carew, Esq. of Beddington. Communicated by the Rev. Francis Stone, F. A. S.—The first of these papers is an evidence of the zeal and cunning with which Henry VIII. prosecuted the affair of the divorce from his first Queen. The persons to whom the letter is written are empowered to employ all the arguments and address in their power, in order to win the consent of the Emperor to the divorce for "the quyete rest and tranquyllitie of or conscience:" but they are ordered to attemper their "wordes in suche sorte as thempero^r shall not have probable conjecture this overture to com̄ of us."—The indenture or writ of Privy Seal (dated Dec. 9, 1511,) addressed to Sir Gilbert Talbot, Knt., deputy of the town and marches of Calais, and others, contains an order from Henry VIII. to receive his half-yearly payment from the French King, which was due on the first of November last. This sum is stated to be 13,793 gold crowns of the sun, of full weight, and 45 deniers Tournois, and is said to be contained in four canvas bags, each bag having its value written on tickets of parchment sealed with the seals of the commissioners, and in their presence made firm and close. The writ proceeds also to give the amount of former payments; and that of monies in the King's treasury at Calais, which is 95,126 gold crowns of the sun, 26 sols and 10d. Tournois.

The letter of Sir Walter Raleigh is truly doleful; it relates the losses which his fleet sustained in a tempestuous voyage; the attacks of the Spaniards on his reduced forces when he landed at Guiana, in one of which his son was killed; and the failure of his attempts to get possession of the mine which he had mentioned to the King, and of which it appears he had some

some knowlege. It concludes with lamentations over his ruined fortune, and with a melancholy picture of his broken health and dejected state of mind. To this curious letter, the following note is subjoined:

'Sir Walter wrote "An Apology for his last unlucky Voyage to Guiana," which was published with some remarks in the year 1700, at the end of an Abridgment of his History of the World. The fatal consequences of the voyage to this great man are well known. It has been supposed by some that he had no knowledge of any gold mine in Guiana, but invented the story with a view of obtaining his liberty: but as he had been enlarged from the Tower two years before, and as he expended so large a sum of his own on the fitting out of the enterprize, the better opinion seems to be, that he really did know of a mine, but was prevented from accomplishing his purpose by the Spaniards, who had discovered his design. It is well known in what manner James sacrificed him to gratify the Spaniards, to whom he had been particularly obnoxious.'

The letter, under the Privy Seal of Charles I., addressed to the Earl of Nottingham and to Viscount Wimbledon, Lord Lieutenants of the county of Surrey, respects the raising of one hundred men for filling up the regiments employed in the war against Austria.

Some Account of the ancient Date at Colchester; and of the Bottoms of Escutcheons or Shields, as they partake of the prevalent Forms of Arches in their respective Periods. By John Adey Repton, Esq. F. A. S.—The date at Colchester, to which Mr. A. Repton first adverts, is, on an examination of the character of the figures, which are *Church Text*, pronounced to be not 1090, as asserted by Messrs. Morant and Gough, but 1490. On the subject of escutcheons, Mr. R. states some facts which merit the notice of antiquaries and architects, since they may help them to ascertain the dates of our antient structures. He reduces them to three heads:

'First—The bottom of the escutcheons or shields partakes of the prevalent forms of arches in their respective periods. By holding the shields reversed, they give some idea of the different windows. Thus the sharp-pointed form prevailed to the end of the fifteenth century. The arch gradually became flatter, and at length assumed various shapes.

'Secondly—As the ornaments of architecture became less simple and more enriched, the escutcheons, instead of being plain, were cut in various forms.

'And, lastly—In the middle of the sixteenth century, when a false taste for superabundant and mixed ornaments prevailed, (temp. Henry the Eighth, and Elizabeth,) scrolls and volutes were introduced; and when the forms of the shields or escutcheons became fanciful, it was necessary to define the precise outline by an inner shield.'

Mr. R.

Mr. R. informs us that he has not been able to discover any shields introduced as *architectural ornaments*, earlier than the 13th century; and his first three specimens of shields in the plate annexed are taken from appendages to warriors in the 11th and 12th centuries.

A Memoir relative to a Roman Aqueduct discovered at Antibes; by M. d'Aguillon, Colonel of the Royal Corps of Engineers. Communicated by Samuel Lysons, Esq. F. R. S. late Director.—The remains of the Romans concur with the details of history in proving that they were a great people; that their projects were grand; and that, in the execution of them, labour and expence were not spared. The aqueduct which M. d'Aguillon was so fortunate as to discover, and of which he has here (in the French language) offered a very amusing account, appears to have been constructed in the reign of Julius Cæsar*, and extends to the length of 2460 toises, (nearly three miles,) with openings or air-shafts at about 70 or 80 yards from each other. Antibes (*Antipolis* of the Romans) is one of the French sea-ports in the Mediterranean, in the department of the Var, which is very badly supplied with fresh water; and the object of the great undertaking here described was to convey the pure element from a distant spring to this city. The Roman architects effected this purpose in the most substantial and masterly manner; carrying the work on a regular level, or rather with a gentle declivity, through the hills and elevations, as well as along the plain ground, from the fountain-head to the walls of the town. In some places, the aqueduct was 70 feet under the surface, and consequently the air-shafts in those places were proportionally long. When M. d'Aguillon had made a discovery of this stupendous and useful labour of the antient Romans, he, with the assistance of the Government and the municipality, employed himself in tracing the aqueduct throughout its extent, in clearing from rubbish the parts which remained, and repairing them, substituting by new masonry the parts which were wanting, and in bringing again that water to the city, of which for many centuries it had been deprived. By the joy which the people of Antibes expressed on this occasion, the Colonel was in course much gratified. He began the restoration of the aqueduct in April 1784, and by the end of July 1785 it was completely repaired, and conveyed a pure stream to the inhabitants of the city, who before this period were often in want of water.

The plates accompanying this memoir illustrate the narrative, and both together give a clear idea of the subject. M. d'Aguillon observes that, on digging into the hill through which the

* Several medals of that Emperor were found in the aqueduct.

aqueduct was conducted, in order to re-construct the openings or shafts which had been destroyed, he discovered a stratum of marl in which numbers of large sea-shells were imbedded; he also notices the kind of cement, partly composed of *puzzolane*, which was employed by the Romans for the internal plaistering or pargeting of the aqueduct, to make it water-tight; and he details the process which he adopted to produce the same effect in the parts that were re-constructed. The whole appears to have perfectly regained its original use.

We come now to a subject, than which perhaps none more curious and interesting ever engaged the attention of the Society of Antiquaries; we mean the *Rosetta Stone*, which was obtained and brought to England, with other curiosities, in consequence of our victories over the French in Egypt. It was first deposited in the library of the Society at Somerset Place; and, after casts for presents to our Universities, and copies for the use of the members and for presents to foreign learned bodies, had been taken from it, this extraordinary stone was removed to that great deposit of relics, the British Museum. The sollicitude of the society to obtain the most correct and ample account of the inscription may be easily imagined; and, though we cannot say that the remarks on it have yet thrown any light on the very puzzling subject of hieroglyphics, much skill and learning have been well employed in illustrating that part of the inscription which is exhibited in Greek characters. We shall endeavour to make room for the preamble, and a portion of the decree itself, as decyphered and put into modern Greek letters, with Mr. Weston's and Professor Heyne's translations; in order to gratify those of our readers who have not seen the plates published by the Society, containing exact *fac similes* of the whole trilinguar inscription. Previously, however, we are called to notice the prefatory matter with which this topic is very properly introduced, and which forms the first part of the paper, intitled

Some Account of the Rosetta Stone, in Three Languages (i. e. in the sacred or hieroglyphic, in the vernacular Egyptian, and in the Greek,) *which was brought to England in the Year* 1802.—*A letter from Major General Turner* gives a sort of history of the stone, or rather of the manner in which it came into our possession; and, as the details are amusing as well as gratifying, we shall transcribe a part of his account.

'By the sixteenth article of the capitulation of Alexandria, the siege of which city terminated the labours of the British army in Egypt, all the curiosities, natural and artificial, collected by the French Institute and others, were to be delivered up to the captors This was refused on the part of the French General to be fulfilled

by saying they were all private property. Many letters passed; at length, on consideration that the care in preserving the insects and animals had made the property in some degree private, it was relinquished by Lord Hutchinson; but the artificial, which consisted of antiquities and Arabian manuscripts, among the former of which was the Rosetta Stone, was insisted upon by the noble General with his usual zeal for science. Upon which I had several conferences with the French General Menou, who at length gave way, saying, that the Rosetta Stone was his private property; but, as he was forced, he must comply as well as the other proprietors. I accordingly received from the under-secretary of the Institute, Le Pere, the secretary Fourier being ill, a paper, containing a list of the antiquities, with the names of the claimants of each piece of sculpture: the stone is there described of black granite, with three inscriptions, belonging to General Menou. From the French sçavans I learnt, that the Rosetta stone was found among the ruins of Fort St. Julien, when repaired by the French, and put in a state of defence: it stands near the mouth of the Nile, on the Rosetta branch, where are, in all probability, the pieces broken off. I was also informed, that there was a stone similar at Menouf, obliterated, or nearly so, by the earthen jugs being placed on it, as it stood near the water; and that there was a fragment of one used and placed in the walls of the French fortifications of Alexandria. The stone was carefully brought to General Menou's house in Alexandria, covered with soft cotton cloth, and a double matting, where I first saw it. The General had selected this precious relick of antiquity for himself. When it was understood by the French army that we were to possess the antiquities, the covering of the stone was torn off, and it was thrown upon its face, and the excellent wooden cases of the rest were broken off; for they had taken infinite pains, in the first instance, to secure and preserve from any injury all the antiquities.

'When I mentioned the manner the stone had been treated to Lord Hutchinson, he gave me a detachment of artillerymen, and an artillery-engine, called, from its powers, a devil-cart, with which that evening I went to General Menou's house, and carried off the stone, without any injury, but with some difficulty, from the narrow streets, to my house, amid the sarcasms of numbers of French officers and men.'

Having obtained possession of the stone, General T. sent it on board the Egyptienne frigate, in which he sailed with it to England, and arrived at Portsmouth in Feb. 1802. Hence it came round to the river, and was forwarded, as we have mentioned, to the apartments of the Society. No time was lost in directing towards it the attention of the learned.

'In July the Society ordered four casts to be taken, by Mr. Papera, in plaster of Paris, from the original stone, and to be sent, properly packed up in cases, to the Universities of Oxford, Cambridge, Edinburgh, and Dublin, accompanied by a letter to each from the secretary: also a fac simile of the Greek inscription was engraved, a copy of which was sent to General Garth, for his Majesty,

copies were distributed to the members of the Society, and others forwarded to the following places, in addition to those foreign Universities, to which the Society usually send presents of their works.—To the Vatican.—To the Society de Propagandâ Fide.—To Cardinal Borgia at Rome.—To the Imperial Library at Vienna.—To the Imperial Society at Petersburgh.—To the Academy at Berlin.—To the National Institute.—To the National Library at Paris.—To the Royal Society of Antiquaries at Copenhagen.—To the University at Upsal.—To the Academy at Madrid.—To the Royal Library at the Escurial.—To the Academy of Sciences at Lisbon.—To the Philosophical Society at Philadelphia.—To the University at Leyden*.'

From none, however, of the foreign Universities, to which copies of the inscription are said to have been sent, did the Society receive any translations or communications illustrative of this relic of antiquity; and, after a lapse of seven years, all the notices with which they have been furnished consist of an English translation of the Greek inscription, by the Rev. S. Weston, with notes and corrections of the text; another in Latin by the late C. G. Heyne, an honorary member of the Society, and Professor in the University of Gottingen; a critical dissertation by Taylor Combe, Esq.; and a paper from the late Professor Porson, (similar to one of the same kind presented by the Rev. S. Weston,) containing the words, or parts of words, which he supposed had filled up the vacancies occasioned by the fractures on this unique stone. If this interesting monument has not obtained such a body of illustration as the Society might have expected, the remarks which are here offered are by no means scanty and unsatisfactory. It clearly appears to be a decree of the priests in honour of Ptolemy Epiphanes, to which Professor Heyne affixed this title:

"*Decretum ordinis Sacerdotum Ægypti, quo, propter beneficia in Templa, Sacerdotes, et Sacra, omnino quæ in totam Ægyptum cumulata, in Ptolemæum Epiphanem novi honores et tituli conferuntur.*"

The inscription, which occupies 54 lines on the stone, thus begins:

1. Βασιλεύοντος τοῦ Νέου καὶ παραλαβόντος τὴν βασιλείαν παρὰ τοῦ πατρὸς κυρίου βασιλειῶν μεγαλοδόξου τοῦ τὴν Αἴγυπτον καταστασαμένου καὶ τοὺς πρὸς τοὺς
2. θεοὺς εὐσεβοῦς ἀντιπάλων ὑπερτέρου τοῦ τῶν βίου τῶν ἀνθρώπων ἐπανορθώσαντος κυρίου τριακονταετηρίδων καθάπερ ὁ Ἥφαιστος ὁ μέγας βασιλέ[υ]ς καθάπερ ὁ Ἥλιος

* The Royal Society of Sciences at Gottingen is not mentioned in this list: but it appears by Professor Heyne's letter that a fac simile of the inscription was sent to that learned body. REV.

3. μέγας

3. μέγας βασιλεὺς τῶν τε ἄνω καὶ τῶν κάτω χωρῶν ἐκγόνε Θεῶν
Φιλοπατόρων ὃν ὁ Ἥφαιστος ἐδοκίμασεν ᾧ ὁ Ἥλιος ἔδωκεν τὴν
νίκην εἰκόνος ζώσης τοῦ Διὸς υἱοῦ τοῦ Ἡλίου ΠΤΟΛΕΜΑΙΟΥ
4. αἰωνοβίου ἠγαπημένου ὑπὸ τοῦ Φθᾶ ἔτους ἑνάτου ἐφ' ἱερέως Ἄλεξ-
άνδρου καὶ Θεῶν Σωτήρων καὶ Θεῶν Ἀδελφῶν καὶ
Θεῶν Εὐεργετῶν καὶ Θεῶν Φιλοπατόρων καὶ
5. Θεᾶς Ἐπιφανοῦς εὐχαρίστου ἀθλοφόρου Βερενίκης Εὐεργέτιδος Πύρρας τῆς
Φιλίνου κανηφόρου Ἀρσινόης Φιλαδέλφου Ἀρείας τῆς διογένους ἱερείας
Ἀρσινόης Φιλοπάτορος Εἰρήνης
6. τῆς Πτολεμαίου μηνὸς Ξαν[θ]ικοῦ τετράδι Λιγυπτίων δὲ Μεχεὶρ
ὀκτωκαιδεκάτῃ ΨΗΦΙΣΜΑ οἱ ἀρχιερεῖς καὶ προφῆται καὶ οἱ
εἰς τὸ ἄδυτον εἰ[σ]πορευόμενοι πρὸς τὸν τολισμὸν τῶν
7. θεῶν καὶ πτεροφόραι καὶ ἱερογραμματεῖς καὶ οἱ ἄλλοι ἱερεῖς πάντες
οἱ ἅπαντήσαντες ἐκ τῶν κατὰ τὴν χώραν ἱερῶν εἰς Μέμφιν τῷ
βασιλεῖ πρὸς τὴν πανήγυριν τῆς παραλήψεως τῆς
8. βασιλείας τῆς Πτολεμαίου αἰωνοβίου ἠγαπημένου ὑπὸ τοῦ Φθᾶ Θεᾶς
Ἐπιφανοῦς εὐχαρίστου ἣν παρέλαβεν παρὰ τοῦ πατρὸς αὐτοῦ
συναχθέντες ἐν τῷ ἐν Μέμφει ἱερῷ τῇ ἡμέρᾳ ταύτῃ ΕΙΠΑΝ

The decree proceeds to recite the beneficial acts of the King to his subjects, and thus concludes:

36. ——————————————— ΕΔΟΞΕΝ
τοῖς ἱερεῦσι τῶν κατὰ τὴν χώραν ἱερῶν πάντων τὰ ὑπάρ-
χοντα τ[ίμια τελεῖν]
37. τῷ αἰωνοβίῳ βασιλεῖ Πτολεμαίῳ ἠγαπημένῳ ὑπὸ τοῦ Φθᾶ ΘΕΩι
ΕΠΙΦΑΝΕΙ εὐχαρίστῳ ὁμοίως δὲ καὶ τὰ τῶν γονέων αὐτοῦ
Θεῶν Φιλ[ο]πατόρων καὶ τὰ τῶν προγόνων Θεῶν Εὐεργ[έτων
καὶ τὰ]
38. τῶν Θεῶν Ἀδελφῶν καὶ τὰ τῶν Θεῶν Σωτήρων ἐπαύξειν μεγάλως
σπουδὴν δὲ τοῦ αἰωνοβίου βασιλέως ΠΤΟ[ΛΕ]ΜΑΙΟΥ ΘΕΟΥ
ΕΠΙΦΑΝΟΥΣ εὐχαρίστου εἰκόνα ἐν ἑκάστῳ ἱερῷ ἐν τῷ ἐπιφα-
[νεστάτῳ τόπῳ]
39. ἣ προσονομασθήσεται ΠΤΟΛΕΜΑΙΟΥ ΤΟΥ ΕΠΑΜΥΝΑΝ-
ΤΟΣ ΤΗι ΑΙΓΥΠΤΩι ἣ παρεστήξεται ὁ κυριώτατος θεὸς
τοῦ ἱεροῦ διδοὺς αὐτῷ ὅπλον νικητικὸν ἃ ἔσαι κατεσκευασμέν[α
τὸν ἐπιχώριον]
40. τρόπον καὶ τοὺς ἱερεῖς θεραπεύειν τὰς εἰκόνας τρὶς τῆς ἡμέρας
καὶ παρατιθέναι αὐταῖς ἱερὸν κόσμον καὶ τ' ἄλλα τὰ νομι-
ζόμενα συντελεῖν καθὰ καὶ τοῖς ἄλλοις θεοῖς ἐν [δὲ ἑορταῖς
καὶ πα]
41. νηγύρεσιν ἱδρύσασθαι δὲ βασιλεῖ ΠΤΟΛΕΜΑΙΩι ΘΕΩι ΕΠΙ-
ΦΑΝΕΙ εὐχαρίστῳ τῷ ἐγ βασιλέως Πτολεμαίου καὶ βασι-
λίσσης Ἀρσινόης Θεῶν Φιλοπατόρων ξόανόν τε καὶ ναὸν χρ[υ-
σοῦν ἐν ἑκάστῳ τῶν]
42. ἱερῶν καὶ καθιδρύσαι ἐν τοῖς ἀδύτοις μετὰ τῶν ἄλλων ναῶν καὶ
ἐν ταῖς μεγάλαις πανηγύρεσιν ἐν αἷς ἐξοδεῖαι τῶν ναῶν γινον-
ται καὶ τὸν τοῦ Θεοῦ ΕΠΙΦΑΝΟΥΣ ἐν[χαρίστου ναὸν συνε]

43. ξοδεύειν ὅπως δ' ἔυσημος ἡ νῦν τε καὶ εἰς τὸν ἔπειτα χρόνον ἐπικεῖσθαι τῷ ναῷ τὰς τῆ βασιλέως χρυσᾶς βασιλείας δέκα ἃς προσκείσεται ἀσπὶς [καθάπερ καὶ ἐπὶ πασῶν]

44. τῶν ἀσπιδε[ί]δων βασιλείων τῶν ἐπὶ τῶν ἄλλων ναῶν ἔσται δ' αὐτῶν ἐν τῷ μέσῳ ἡ καλουμένη βασιλεία ΨΧΕΝΤ ἣν περιθέμενος εἰσῆλθεν εἰς τὸ ἐν Μέμφ[ει ἀπιεῖον ὅπως συν]

45. τελεσθῇ τὰ νομιζόμενα τῇ παραλήψει τῆς βασιλείας ἐπιθεῖναι δὲ καὶ ἐπὶ τῆ περὶ τὰς βασιλείας τετραγώνῳ κατὰ τὸ πρόειρημένον βασίλειον φυλακτήρια χρύ[σα ἐν οἷς γεγράψεται διό]

46. τι ἐστὶν τῆ βασιλέως τῆ ἐπιφανῆ ποιήσαντος τήν τε ἄνω χώραν καὶ τὴν κάτω καὶ ἐπὶ τὴν τρια[κ]άδα τάττε Μεσόρη ἐν ᾗ τὰ γενέθλια τῆ βασιλέως ἄγεται ἱμοίως δὲ καὶ [τὴν (λείπει ὁ μὴν καὶ ἡ ἡμέρα)]

47. ἐν ᾗ παρέλαβεν τὴν βασιλείαν παρ[ὰ] τῆ πατρὸς ἐπωνύμως νεομήνιαν ἐν τοῖς ἱεροῖς αἱ δὴ πολλῶν ἀγαθῶν ἀρχηγὸι[π]ᾶσιν εἰσὶν ἄγειν τὰς ἡμέρας ταύτας ἑορτ[ὴν καὶ πανήγυριν ἐν τοῖς κατὰ μῆ]νι]

48. γυπτον ἱεροῖς κατὰ μῆνα καὶ συντελεῖν ἐν αὐτοῖς θυσίας καὶ σπονδὰς καὶ τ' ἄλλα τὰ νομιζόμενα καθὰ καὶ ἐν ταῖς ἄλλαις πανηγύρεσιν τάς τε γινόμενας προθ[έσεις διδόναι τοῖς ἱερεῦσιν τοῖς πα]

49. ρεχομένοις ἐν τοῖς ἱεροῖς ἄγειν δὲ ἑορτὴν καὶ πανήγυριν τῷ αἰωνοβίῳ καὶ ἠγαπημένῳ ὑπὸ τῆ Φθᾶ βασιλεῖ ΠΤΟΛΕΜΑΙΩι ΘΕΩι ΕΠΙΦΑΝΕΙ εὐχαρίστῳ κατ' ἐνι[αυτὸν κατὰ τήν τε ἄνω καὶ τὴν κάτω]

50. χώραν ἀπὸ τῆς νεμηνίας τῆ Θωὺθ ἐφ' ἡμέρας πέντε ἐν αἷς καὶ στεφανηφορήσουσιν συντελοῦντες θυ[σ]ίας καὶ σπονδὰς καὶ τ' ἄλλα τὰ καθήκοντα προσαγορέ[υειν δὲ τὰς ἱερεῖς τᾶ τε αἰωνοβίᾳ]

51. καὶ τῆ ΘΕΟΥ ΕΠΙΦΑΝΟΥΣ εὐχαρίστῳ ἱερεῖς πρὸς τοῖς ἄλλοις ὀνόμασιν τῶν θεῶν ὧν ἱερατεύσει καὶ καταχωρίσαι εἰς πάντας τοὺς χρηματισμοὺς καὶ εἰς τοὺς δ[ειγματισμ]ούς τοὺς αντίκοντας εἰς τήν]

52. ἱερατείαν αὐτῆ ἐξεῖναι δὲ καὶ τοῖς ἄλλοις ἰδιώταις ἄγειν τὴν ἑορτὴν καὶ τὸν προειρημένον ναὸν ἱδρύεσθαι καὶ ἔχειν παρ' αὐτοῖς συντελοῦ[ντας τὰ προσήκοντα νόμιμα ἐν ταῖς ἑορταῖς]

53. [τᾶ] ις κατ' ἐνιαυτὸν ὅπως γνώριμον ἡ διότι οἱ ἐν Αιγύπτῳ ἄυξησι καὶ τιμῶσι ΤΟΝ ΘΕΟΝ ΕΠΙΦΑΝΗ εὐχάριστον βασιλέα καθάπερ νόμιμόν ἐσ[ιν τόδε ψήφισμα τεθὲν ἀναγράψαι εἰς στήλην μέλ]

54. [ανος σ]τερεᾶ λίθᾳ τοῖς τε ΙΕΡΟΙΣ καὶ ΕΓΧΩΡΙΟΙΣ καὶ ΕΛΛΗΝΙΚΟΙΣ ΓΡΑΜΜΑΣΙΝ καὶ στῆσαι ἐν ἑκάστῳ τῶν τε πρώτων καὶ δευτέρω[ν Θεῶν ἱερῷ]

Mr. Weston's translation is given without division of lines: but we shall here exhibit it so as to correspond with the Greek arrangement:

¶ 1. A decree

1. A decree of the young King (who received the kingdom from his father) Lord of kingdoms, great in glory, the settler of the constitution of Egypt, and in all things relating to
the gods of distinguished piety; superior to his adversaries, improver of the life of men, Lord of the festival of thirty years; like Vulcan; the great King, resembling the Sun
the great monarch of Upper and Lower Egypt, the offspring of the Gods Philopators, whom Vulcan approved, to whom the Sun gave the victory; the living image of Jupiter, the son of the Sun, Ptolemy
the immortal, beloved by Phtha. (Aetos, son of Aetos, in the ninth year being high priest of Alexander, and the Gods Soteroon, and the Gods Adelphoon, and the Gods Euergetoon, and the Gods Philopatoroon, and
the God Epiphanes, most gracious and victorious.) Of Berenice Euergetis, Pyrrha, the daughter of Philinus, being basket-bearer: of Arsinoe Philadelphus, Areia, daughter of Diogenes, being priestess: of Arsinoe, wife of Philopator, Irene,
daughter of Ptolemy, being priestess. (On the fourth day of the month Xandicus, the eighteenth of the Egyptian month Mechir, the priests and the prophets, and all those who go into the sanctuary to dress
the Gods, and the pterophoræ, and the sacred registrars, and all the priests throughout the country, collected at Memphis to meet the King for the assumption
of the kingdom of Ptolemy the Immortal, beloved by Phtha, the God Epiphanes most gracious, which kingdom he received from his father.) The said priests being assembled in the temple at Memphis, have on this day pronounced this decree.'—

5. It has been decreed by the priests, and may it prosper! of all the temples of the country
as well those of King Ptolemy, living for ever, beloved of Phtha, the God Epiphanes most gracious, as those of his parents the Philopators, and those of his ancestors the Gods [Euergetoon]
the Gods Adelphoon, and Soteroon, greatly to increase their glory; and to set up an image of the immortal King Ptolemy, the God Epiphanes, most gracious in each of their temples in the [most conspicuous part] of them
which shall be called the image of Ptolemy the Defender of Egypt; and near it shall stand the supreme deity of the temple, presenting to the image a wreath of victory [prepared in the usual manner]
and the priest shall perform service three times a day before the image, and dress it with sacred vestments, and perform such ceremonies as are prescribed for the other Gods [in their festivals and
solemn assemblies]. In addition to the statues erected to King Ptolemy, the God Epiphanes most gracious, sprung from King Ptolemy and Queen Arsinoe, the Gods Philopators, a

small statue, and a shrine [of gold], shall be made, and placed in the sanctuary [of each
42. of the temples] with the other shrines, and in the great festivals, when the *Exoduses* are made from the temples, [this shrine] of the God Epiphanes [most gracious] shall
43. go forth: but in order to make it conspicuous, both now and in aftertimes, unto the temple of the King shall be dedicated ten crowns of gold, near which shall be placed an asp [like the one on the other] crowns in form of asps in the other temples.
44. In the middle of the sanctuary shall be the crown called Psokent, which he wore when he went [to the palace] at Memphis,
45. for the consummation of the ceremonies at the time he was solemnly invested with the kingdom. About the square or corners of the foresaid crown, as about the others, there shall be phylacteries of gold [on which is an image
46. of the King, with his name], who has made both Upper and Lower Egypt illustrious. And when, on the thirtieth day of Messori, the King's birth-day is celebrated, and on the day
47. . . . . he received the kingdom from his father, during these two days of the same name, which are the authors of many blessings to all, it has been decreed to celebrate a festival [and hold a solemn assembly throughout]
48. Egypt, in its temples monthly, and perform therein sacrifices and libations, and all other rites of [procession and feasts in the] fore-mentioned temples, as at other feasts and assemblies:
49. and moreover to keep a festival and hold an assembly to the immortal, beloved of Phtha, King Ptolemy, the God Epiphanes most gracious, every year [throughout Upper and Lower
50. Egypt] from the new moon of Thouth during five days, in which the priests shall wear chaplets whilst they offer sacrifices, and pour out libations, and perform all other acts of worship. Unto the names of the other Gods whom they serve [they shall add the name of the King] living for ever,
51. the God Epiphanes most gracious, and imparting unto all the oracles, [and the most celebrated temples of Egypt]
52. his holy priesthood. It shall be lawful also for private individuals to keep this feast, and build the fore-mentioned temple, and to have sacrificing priests at their own temples
53. annually, that it may be known that the Egyptians honour and revere the God Epiphanes the most gracious Monarch, as they should do. [This decree of the young King] shall be engraved
54. on a solid stone in sacred, in vernacular, and Greek characters, and be set up in the first, second [third, and fourth temples of the Gods of Egypt]. Farewell.' *

'* N. B. The words between crotchets are restored by conjecture, and filled up where the stone is defective, beginning from the second line to the end.'

'VERSIO LATINA.

Regnante novo, et regnum a patre acceptum tenente, domino regnorum, glorioso, Ægypti regnatore, et in
deos pio, adversariis superiore [*facto*], vitæ hominum restitutore, domino cycli xxx. annorum, *eo modo quo Vulcanus magnus;* rege *ut Sol*
magnus rex, superiorum et inferiorum regionum; *oriundo a diis patris-amantibus; quem Vulcanus probavit, cui Sol dedit victoriam;* imagine viva Jovis, *filii Solis,* Ptolemæo
longævo, dilecto a Phtha, *anno nono, sacerdote Aquila, Aquilæ filio,* Alexandri et deorum Servatorum, et deorum fratrum, et deorum benefactorum, et deorum patris-amantium, et
dei præsentis, munifici; *athlophoro* [*sacerdote*] *Berenices beneficæ, Pyrrha Philini filia; Canephora* [*sacerdote*] *Arsinoes, fratris-amantis, Aria Diogenis filia; sacerdote Arsinoes, patris-amantis, Irene*
Ptolimæi filia; mensis Xanthici die quarto, Ægyptiorum Mechir die xviii. decretum *Pontifices et Prophetæ, et qui in adytum ingrediuntur ad ornandos*
deos, et Pterophoræ, et Scribæ, et veteri Sacerdotes omnes, qui ex templis regionis Memphin convenerant ad regem, ad sollennia auspicandi
regni Ptolemæi longævi, dilecti a Phtha, dei præsentis, munifici *quod* [*regnum*] *accepit a patre suo, congregati in templo intra Memphin, hoc die sciverunt.*'—

——————— '*Quod bonum faustumque sit: placuit sacerdotibus templorum per regionem omnium, honores sollennes omnes jam solitos*
longævo regi Ptolemæo, dilecto a Phtha, deo præsenti, munifico, *pariter etiam honores* parentum *ejus,* deorum patris amantium, *et honores avorum,* deorum benefactorum,
deorum fratrum, et deorum servatorum, *augere magnificè; et collocare* longævi regis Ptolemæi, dei præsentis, munifici, *simulacrum in unoquoque templo in loco maximè conspicuo,*
quod appellabitur Ptolemæi defensoris Ægypti; *quo loco juxta stabit præcipuum templi numen porrigens arma ipsi victricia; eruntque ea* [*omnia*] *instructa in modum maximè insignem;*
porro [*placuit,*] *sacerdotes colere imagines religiosè ter quotidie, et apponere iis sacrum ornatum, et reliqua ex more fieri solita præstare, quemadmodum aliis diis in sacris*
et sollennibus; ponere quoque regi Ptolemæo præsenti, munifico *et rege Ptolemæo et regina Arsinoe, diis patris amantibus, signum et ædiculam* * * * *
et collocare in adytis una cum aliis ædiculis, et in magnis sollennibus, in quibus pompæ ædicularum fiunt, etiam dei præsentis, munifici, *ædiculam in pompa*
ducere; ut vero insignis illa fit, imponi nunc et in posterum ædiculæ aurea insignia regis decem; quibus apponetur clipeus * * * * [*in morem*]
clipei formium insignium ceterarum ædicularum; erit que in medio illud,

illud, quod appellatur insigne ψχντ *, quo circumdatus ingressus est Memphi* * * * * [*quando*]

45. *peracta sunt sollennia suscipiendi regni; ponere quoque supra tetragono, quod ea regia insignia includit, juxta prædictum insigne regium, amuleta aurea* * * * * *

46. *quod est regis, qui illustravit et superiorem et inferiorem regionem; et quando quidem trigesimum diem* [*mensis*] *Mesore, quo die natalis regis celebratur, pariterque etiam* * * * * * * *diem*,

47. *quo regnum accepit a patre, nomine ejus consecrarunt in templis, qui utique multorum bonorum auspicia sunt omnibus, habere hos dies festos* * * * * * *in templis*

48 *Ægypti in mense, et peragere in iis sacrificia et libationes, et reliqua ex more sollennia, quemadmodum et in ceteris sollennibus; solitas autem exhibitiones* * * * * *

49. [*instituere cum*] *iis quæ præberi solent in templis; agere vero festum et sollenne* longævo et dilecto a Phtha regi Ptolemæo, deo præsenti, munifico, *quotannis* * * * * * [*per omnem*]

50. *regionem, a Kalendis Thoyt per dies quinque, in quibus quoque coronas gestabunt peragentes sacrificia, et reliqua, quæ curari fas est; recitare autem* * * * * * * [*nomen Ptolemæi*]

51. *et* dei præsentis, munifici, *sacerdotes, præter cetera nomina deorum, quorum sacerdotium obeunt, et inserere in omnes formulas, et in* * * * * * *

52. *sacerdotium ejus; licere vero etiam aliis privatis agere festum, et prædictam ædiculam exponi, et habere apud se* * * * * *

53. * * * * *quotannis; ut manifestum fiat, quod Ægyptii amplificant et honorant* deum præsentem, munificum, regem, *ut lege constitutum est,* * * * * * * [*et incidere hæc*]

54. *in duro lapide, sacris et patriis et græcis litteris, et statuere in unoquoque et prioris et secundi ordinis* [*templo*].'

The differences between the two translations are not considerable, and the reader will easily mark them; so that we need not swell our pages with a specific contrast. We must pass over Mr. Weston's illustrations, though they are ingenious, in order to notice those of Professor Heyne and Mr. Combe, which are more elaborate. The Professor distinctly specifies the various information which may be collected from this inscription; and, having remarked that it ascertains the time at which the decree was made, which is stated to be A. C. 197, he proceeds to observe:

'*Licebit subjicere nonnulla saltem notabilia, quæ ex ipso lapide aut cognoscuntur aut illustrantur;*

'*Ex primò quidem de Regis et de Regum superiorum titulis: tum de sacerdotum ordinibus: porro de iis, quæ Rex in regnum et in reli-*

* Prof. Heyne does not attempt to translate or explain this word, but Mr. Weston subjoins this short note to the term, which in his version is only the Greek expressed by English letters:

'The crown ψοχντ, or Psokeat, the crown of Mercury, Pi (Π) is the article, and ΣΩΚΟΣ, Mercury. See Hesychius.'

gionet

giones beneficia contulisse memoratur; tandem de novis honoribus ei delatis.

'*Nomina et tituli Regis partim aliunde noti, partim ex inscriptione hac innotescentes, sunt ferè* hi: *appellatur Ptolemæus* κύριος Βασιλέων, *Dominus Regnorum* (*nisi enim* Βασιλέων *dictum putare licet ab Alexandrinis per* Βασιλέων, *ut lin.* 32. τῶν αὐτῆ Βασιλέων): *quando quidem præter superiorem et inferiorem Ægyptum, Terras finitimas, Phœnicen quoque et Cyprum, tum Cyrenaicum tenebat* (v. *Monumentum Adulitanum, J. Winc.*) μεγαλόδοξος *gloriosus*—τὴν Αἴγυπτον καλλησσάμενος *Ægypti pacator, seu Restitutor: seditionibus extinctis.*

'Τοῖ περὶ θεὸς εὐσεβὴς *in Deos pius:* ἀντιπάλων ὑπερίτερος, *hostium victor:* τὸν βίον τῶν ἀνθρώπων ἐπανόθωσας, *vitæ humanæ restitutor, sive ut vitia et corruptelas emendet.*'—

'*Sacerdotum ordines et nomina nonnulla memorantur, mihi aliunde non nota inscriptum et Decretum:* ἐφ ἱερεὺς Ἀετοῦ τοῦ Αἰτοῦ, *ita legendum* Ἀλεξάνδρου, καὶ θεῶν Σωτήρων, καὶ θεῶν Ἀδελφῶν, καὶ θεῶν Εὐεργέτων, καὶ θεῶν Φιλοπατόρων, καὶ θεοῦ Ἐπιφανοῦς εὐχαρίστου. *Fuit igitur Sacerdotium Alexandri, Ptolemæi Soteris, Ptolemæi Philadelphi, Ptolemæi Euergetis, Ptolemæi Philopatoris, Ptolemæi Epiphanis, adeoque totius stirpis Macedoniæ Regum Ægypti: Is qui hoc Sacerdotio fungebatur appellatus est nomine Aquilæ: quod nomen dignitatis esse putandum, et plura fuere Sacerdotia, etiam Athenis, quorum nomen patrium seu familiæ non frequentabatur, sed nomen novum cum Sacerdotio acceptum. Aquilæ autem nomen symbolicum seu Hieroglyphicum fuisse promptum est ad suspicandum. Fuit ergo Sacerdos Aquila, Aquilæ Filius, hoc est, ex patre, qui eodem Sacerdotio functus erat: alterum locum tenuit Sacerdos Pyrrha, Philini filia; fungens Sacerdotio Berenices, primæ hujus nominis Soteri Nuptæ; sub nomine* Ἀβλοφόρου, *quæ præmia reportat.*'—

'*Porro, cum inter Græcos pauci Dii, duo vel tres, essent σύναοι vel σύμβωμοι: apud Ægyptios plures Deos eodem Templo, iisdem Sacris, cultos esse, ut ex aliis Monumentis, ita ex hoc quoque patet.*'

The Professor also notices the information which may be derived from this stone respecting the deification of the Ægyptian kings, and the ceremonies, processions, and pompous offerings, with which they were honoured in the temples. We may add that here is a specimen of the adulation of priests to sovereigns, and of the use to which the latter applied the homage which they affected to pay to the gods. While they made splendid offerings to the images of their deities, they contrived to render the grandeur of the worship subservient to their own glory.

Mr. Combe's remarks are learned, and very illustrative of those parts of the inscription to which his notes refer. We must make only a short quotation from his letter:

'Line 6. ΠΡΟΣ ΤΟΝ ΣΤΟΑΙΣΜΟΝ. The statues of the Ægyptian Gods were robed; and the ceremony of decorating them in their respective dresses was the peculiar office of those priests who were privileged to enter εἰς τὸ ἄδυτον, into the sanctuary. The sacred vestments of Isis were enriched with a variety of colours; but those of Osiris

had

had no shade nor variety in them, but were of one uniform bright tint:

'Στολαὶ δὲ αἱ μὲν Ἴσιδος, ποικίλαι ταῖς βαφαῖς· —— Ὀσίριδος οὐκ ἔχει σκιὰν, οὐδὲ ποικιλμὸν, ἀλλ' ἐν ἁπλοῦν τὸ φωτοειδές.

'*Porro autem amicula Isidis variæ sunt tinctura; ——Osiridis non umbram, non varietatem habet: totum est luminosum.*

Plutarch. de Iside et Osiride, c. 78.

'Line 7. ΠΤΕΡΟΦΟΡΑΙ. Πτεροφόροι, καλοῦνται δὲ οὗτος καὶ τῶν ἐν Αἰγύπτῳ ἱερέων τινές. Hesychius, v. πτεροφόροι

'The reason why the Πτεροφόραι were so called is explained by Diodorus Siculus, who says, that in ancient times a book, tied with purple strings, containing the worship and honours of the gods, was brought by a hawk to the priests at Thebes; and that the sacred scribes wore on their heads, in commemoration of this event, a purple ribbon, and the wings of a hawk:

'Διόπερ καὶ τοὺς ἱερογραμματεῖς φορεῖν φοινικοῦν ῥάμμα καὶ πτερὸν ἱέρακος.

'*Quam ob causam notarii sacri nunc quoque licium purpureum et accipitris pennam in capite gestent.* Diodorus Siculus, lib. i. p. 98.

'Clemens Alexandrinus also mentions the circumstance of wings being worn on the heads of the priests: he says that in sacred processions the ἱερογραμματεὺς went first, with wings on his head, and a book in his hands: Ἱερογραμματεὺς προέρχεται, ἔχων πτερὰ ἐπὶ τῆς κεφαλῆς, βιβλίον τε ἐν χερσὶ. *Progreditur* ἱερογραμματεὺς, *pennas habens in capite, et librum in manibus.* Clemens Alexandrinus, Strom. lib. vi. p. 757. — It should seem, however, by the two last-mentioned passages, that the ἱερογραμματεὶς and the πτεροφόροι were the same; but that they were not so is sufficiently evident, from their being both mentioned in the present decree.'

Mr. Combe shews that ΑΣΠΙΣ in line 43. means not *a shield*, as translated by Professor Heyne, but *a serpent*, as rendered by our learned countryman Mr. Weston.

Having been unavoidably led to make unusually large extracts from the communications relative to the Rosetta Stone,—communications which, from their importance to literature, merit the fullest consideration,—we must postpone our report of the remaining contents of this volume to a future number.

[*To be continued.*]

ART. VII. *Observations in Illustration of Virgil's celebrated Fourth Eclogue.* 8vo. pp. 450. 15s. Boards. Evans.

WE suggested, many years since*, the possibility of framing some new hypothesis, to explain the prophetic obscurities

* See M. R. Vol. lxxix. p. 305. *Art.* "Observations on the Subject of the Fourth Eclogue. By the Rev. S. Henley, F.S.A."

of

of the fourth Eclogue of Virgil; and this curious poem certainly still afforded, at the period to which we allude, an ample field for speculative criticism. That it no longer opens such a field (if our opinion be correct,) is due to the scholarship, the ingenuity, and the masterly powers of reasoning, which are displayed by the author of the volume before us. We recollect no occasion more becoming than that which now offers, for congratulating the learned world on the appearance of a work which would have reflected credit on the classical leisure of a season of the profoundest peace; and which will compel the attention of the studious few, even amid the distraction and the misery of war. It is rare, indeed, that the whole mind of the real scholar can be brought to bear on one contested point in literature; since a buoyancy of imagination, and an universality of pursuit, are attached to cultivated genius, which rise above the detail of petty inquiry, and expand beyond the circumscribed limits of partially interesting truth. It must therefore be some great subject, some weighty consideration of religion or of politics,—something, in a word, seriously affecting this world or the next,—which can stimulate the man of sound understanding to a severe exercise of his wit and judgment: while it is left to the herd of middle-sized commentators to speculate with misapplied gravity on matters of ludicrous indifference, and to waste the labour of learning on fields of uncertain or of worthless produce.

The object of the present dissertation is by no means undeserving of the best abilities; and, conducted as that dissertation has been, we conceive the success of the author to be far from doubtful. We shall select his own account of his design; and, as we fully agree with him in the general tenour and final result of his argument, we shall confine ourselves chiefly to analysis or extracts: excepting in some few instances, in which we could have wished that a minor objection or two had been anticipated; or in which we have noticed a few slips of the pen, that are uncorrected in the list of errata.

We begin by quoting 'some preliminary observations relative to the form and arrangement of the work.'

'To the original poem, which is prefixed for the accommodation of the classical scholar, I have subjoined, for the English reader, a new poetical translation, as nearly literal as I could render it. This I preferred to a prose translation, although the latter might certainly be rendered more exactly literal, because I wished to endeavour to convey, together with the strict sense of the original, some notion also of its spirit and poetical character; an object not to be attained by any translation in prose. For the further benefit of the English reader, to whom I was anxious to render this treatise as intelligible and

and interesting, if possible, as to the classical scholar, versions are added of all quotations occurring in the work.

'The work itself is divided into seven chapters. The first chapter takes a general review of all the principal schemes of interpretation which have been adopted for expounding the Fourth Eclogue; shewing, at the same time, *the entire failure* of them all, and thereby demonstrating, that the question still remains open for determination. The second chapter detects *the cause* of that universal failure, and exposes *the error* of the common principle upon which those interpretations had been made to rest. The third chapter propounds *the true principle* upon which alone the poem can be successfully interpreted; by shewing, that the prophecy which it contains is to be ascribed (not, as has been hitherto assumed, to the person of Virgil, but) to the person of the Cumæan Sibyl, whose prediction Virgil therein expressly alleges. The fourth chapter proves by an historical review of the public events of the time, compared with the matter of the Eclogue, that the proper object of that Cumæan Prophecy was no other than Octavius Cæsar; and that it related especially to the great event of the first establishment of his sovereignty in the West by the peace of Brundusium, during the consulate of Asinius Pollio. The fifth and sixth chapters are employed in endeavouring to confirm that argument; by attempting to show, that the Eclogue is truly a Genethliacon, or Birth-day Poem, composed in honour of Octavius; and that its nature is, in the technical sense of the term, *genethliacal*, being marked with unequivocal allusions to *the astrological characters* appertaining to Octavius's nativity; according to the prevailing superstitions of the age in which it was written.

'The seventh, and last, chapter investigates *the sources* from whence Virgil derived the notions which he has combined in this poem in honour of Octavius. It traces those notions to the Sibylline prophecies, and those prophecies to the sacred oracles of Judæa. It takes a summary view of the declaration of those sacred oracles, concerning the first rise of the empire of Rome. And it concludes, with a contemplation of the notices afforded by those same oracles, relative to the progress, the duration, and the final termination, of that same empire.

'Lastly, an Index is subjoined, to all the separate passages of the Eclogue which are illustrated in the Work.'

We have nothing to add to this clear enunciation of the contents of the volume; and, indeed, in the first of these chapters, nothing objectionable occurs to us. We so entirely acquiesce in the reasoning of the author, that we shall be contented with a single reference to this portion of his work: but, in the second chapter, at p. 69., where he is defending the severity of Virgil's judgment, and arguing against the probability of his venturing to foretell any really contingent event, he says of the sixth Æneid: 'No sooner has the poet brought the events comprised in that prophecy down to the *latest real occurrence* of the year in which he completed it, the death of Marcellus,

cellus, than he at once concludes the prospective scene,' &c. &c. Now, is this assertion perfectly correct? If the sixth Æneid was finished in the year of Rome 731, must it not follow that the poet speaks prophetically of the extension of the empire over the *Indians*, with whom no victorious communication had taken place till A. U. C. 734?

———" *Super et Garamantas et* INDOS
Proferet Imperium."——— Æn. 6. 795. 6.

Till this year, the regions beyond Syria were in a state of prosperous warfare against the Romans: but, on the arrival of Augustus in Syria, Phraates sent back the standards taken from Crassus and Antony. The whole of this objection, indeed, proceeds on the supposition that by *Indi* are to be understood inhabitants of some part of Asia, and not Æthiopians, according to Ruæus. In the third chapter, we are also well satisfied with the proofs and illustrations which are brought forwards in support of the author's opinion: but we would throw out the following hint for his consideration; premising that we do not attach sufficient weight either to this or to any other of our objections, to induce a doubt in our ultimate assent to his argument, although they may have occasioned some delay in that assent, and, as a species of blemish, we could wish to have them removed. — Contending that " *venit ultima ætas*" (line 4. of the Eclogue,) and "*aspice venturo sæclo*" (line 52.) are spoken, severally, by the poet and the prophetess, the author observes, page 79., 'It would be strangely incongruous for *the same person* to say at the beginning of the poem, " *Jam venit ultima ætas*," the last age is now come; and afterwards to say, " *Aspice venturum sæclum*," behold the future age; for no age can be supposed to be later than that which is declared to be the last.' It appears to us that some such answer as the following might be made to this remark. Both *sæclum* and *ætas* signify an age, or determinate portion of time. On entering on this portion, we say, " *venit ætas*;" with respect to the remainder which is to be accomplished, we may say " *venturum sæclum*," not alluding to any future age, but to the future years of the present. This expression would be peculiarly proper at the immediate commencement of an age, when the whole portion of time so designated must be future. — Among the errata which we promised to notice, perhaps it is fair to include one at page 80., where, pursuing the above train of argument, the author has written, or printed, " *ultima ætas Cumæi carminis jam venisse*:" — but we hasten to the fourth chapter; where the inquiry, inasmuch as it is original, may be said to commence. Doubts and difficulties of every kind have long been raised against the previous

vious modes of interpreting the fourth Eclogue. These objections, indeed, have never before appeared in that aggregate strength which they assume under the management of the present writer: but still the most attractive part of his work is not that in which he destroys an old edifice, but that in which he erects a new one, of the most durable materials, in our opinion, and of the most ingenious construction.

It is impossible to render complete justice to the very detailed argument of the fourth chapter, by any partial quotations. The survey of the first twenty-three years of the life of Augustus, which end with the year of Rome 714, the consulate of Pollio, is admirably drawn up by the author: but our limits compel us to mutilate it; and we can offer only that detached part which involves the consideration of the last and most celebrated year:

'The capture of the city of Perusia gave a final determination to the fortune of Octavius. For now, says Dio, "Perusia *being taken*, the whole of Italy, *partly by force and partly by submission, fell to* Cæsar." — Περυσιας αλωσης, και ΤΑΛΛΑ ΤΑ ΕΝ ΤΗι ΙΤΑΛΙΑι, τα μεν βιᾳ, τα δε εθελοντη, ΤΩι ΚΑΙΣΑΡΙ ΠΡΟΣΕΧΩΡΗΣΕ*. Pollio, and the rest of Anthony's lieutenants, (who had looked upon Lucius as, το κεφαλαιον του πολεμου "*the head of the war*,") retreated precipitately with their respective forces, in different directions, pursued and harrassed by the armies of Octavius†: while the victorious Octavius himself returned in triumph to Rome, conducted amidst the acclamations of the people, habited in the triumphal stole, and crowned with a crown of laurel. And the senate at the same time passed a decree, by which it was enacted, that, in future, whenever any one should wear the laurel crown in right of victory, Octavius also should have the privilege of assuming it‡.

'Elated by this eminent success, in which he saw *the conquest of Italy* become the fruit of one signal and decisive victory, he treated with contempt the power of Sextus Pompey, who retained the command of the fleet; which conduct provoked that general to unite his naval forces to those of Mark Anthony, who had recently arrived upon the coast from Greece, and who was laying siege to Brundusium; which place soon after fell into his hands. A tremendous civil storm now again impended, which threatened the whole of Italy; but there happily existed, among the leaders of both interests, persons who possessed equally the inclinations and the influence to avert the impending calamity. M. Cocceius Nerva, (grandfather of the emperor of that name,) the common friend of Octavius and Anthony, undertook, with a noble zeal and admirable address, to subdue the enmity of the two hostile leaders§. Circumstances concurred to favour his great design. Octavius was at length persuaded to treat for peace;

'* Dio, xlviii. c. 15.
'‡ Dio, xlviii. c. 16.
† Appian, l. v. p. 700. (1113.)
§ Appian, l. v. p. 706. (1122.)

and

and Anthony consented to relinquish his recent engagements with Sextus Pompey. The consul Pollio, the friend and protector of Virgil, was appointed to negotiate on behalf of Anthony; Mæcenas, no less the friend and protector of Virgil, was commissioned by Octavius to negotiate on his behalf; and to these was joined the author of the negotiation, Cocceius himself, as a third party, common to both interests. The result of the negotiation was great and memorable. A treaty of peace was finally concluded at Brundusium, in which the security of the friends of both parties was fully provided for. An article was introduced, by which it was expressly stipulated, that there should be "*a general amnesty for the past, and friendship for the future.*" — γνωσαν προς αλληλους ΑΜΝΗΣΤΙΑΝ ΕΙΝΑΙ ΤΩΝ ΓΕΓΟΝΟΤΩΝ, ΚΑΙ ΦΙΛΙΑΝ ΕΙΣ ΤΟ ΜΕΛΛΟΝ *. And a new partition of the Roman dominions was made and confirmed, by which the entire Western half *expressly* (and Italy and Rome *virtually*) were placed under the sole authority of Octavius. It was agreed, "that Scodra, (*Scutari*,) a city of Illyria, situated upon the Ionian gulf, should constitute a common boundary; that all nations and islands lying *eastward* of Scodra should be possessed by Anthony, as far as to the river Euphrates; while all *territories lying to* the Westward *of that point, should belong to* Cæsar, *as far as to* the Ocean." — τα δε ΕΣ ΔΥΣΙΝ ΤΟΝ ΚΑΙΣΑΡΑ ΜΕΧΡΙ ΩΚΕΑΝΟΥ — And that Africa should be "retained by Lepidus, *as Cæsar had assigned it.*" — κατα ΚΑΙΣΑΡ ΕΔΕΔΩΚΕΙ. — There was indeed a condition, that Anthony and Octavius should have equally the privilege of levying forces in Italy; but the former soon found reason to complain of the inefficacy of such a condition, when the occupation of that "country had *fallen to the lot of his rival.*" — την Ιταλιαν ειληχοτος †.

'A very remarkable allusion to this allotment of the Western provinces, appears in the *Astronomicon* of Manilius, where the poet assigns to the several constellations their respective charges of countries. To the government of Capricorn, the well-known ascendant of Octavius's nativity, is assigned the division expressly allotted to Octavius by the terms of the treaty of Brundusium.

'Tu, Capricorne, regis quicquid sub sole cadente est positum ‡.

'To thee, O Capricorn! in charge is given
Whate'er is stretch'd beneath the west of heaven.

'Such were the terms, and such the spirit, of this famous treaty, concluded at Brundusium during the consulate of Pollio; the conditions of which, so far more glorious to Octavius, *as* a Roman, than to Anthony, plainly proved that they were the fruits of his recent victory gained over Lucius Anthony at Perusia; and thereby demonstrated, how far he was actually advanced in the career which had been opened for him by Julius Cæsar. A very singular and public testimony to this truth, and to the interpretation which this new partition of the Roman world might reasonably bear, was afforded upon this occasion by Anthony himself. After the ratifica-

* Appian, lib. v. p. 709. (1126.) † Id. ibid. v. p. 725. (1149.)
‡ Manil. iv. 780. Ed. Burton.

tion of the treaty, the two triumvirs entertained each other in their respective camps before Brundusium. But their entertainments were distinguished by these very remarkable differences; that whereas that of Octavius preserved the manners of the Romans, that of Anthony assumed altogether the fashions and characters of Asia and of Egypt.—ωσιωσαν αλληλους, ΚΑΙΣΑΡ μεν στρατιωτικως τε και ΡΩΜΑΙΚΩΣ, ΑΝΤΩΝΙΟΣ ΔΕ ΑΣΙΑΝΩΣ ΤΕ ΚΑΙ ΑΙΓΥΠΤΙΩΣ *. By the public adoption of this national distinction, immediately after the ratification of the treaty of partition, Anthony, in effect, proclaimed his own separation from the West; and he thereby virtually acknowledged the exclusive pretensions of Octavius to the sovereignty over Rome and Latium. We have good reason for believing, that Virgil was present at these scenes of public exultation; and that he was therefore an eye-witness of these events, and of the glory which they reflected upon his illustrious protector †. But if he was not an eye-witness of them, yet their notoriety was such as to have afforded him abundant occasion for determining both his judgment and his imagination, upon the comparative greatness of Octavius and of Anthony.'

To this statement of the increase of power acquired by Octavius, during the consulship of Pollio, may it not be suggested as some drawback, that, at the close of this year, (or at all events in the very opening of the next,) Octavius was compelled by the clamours of the people, who were suffering from a scarcity of corn, to make peace with Sextus Pompey, who was in possession of Sicily, Sardinia, and Corsica? Virgil, indeed, wrote the fourth Eclogue, according to the best supposition, in the year 715; a year of general peace: but that peace, as far as it related to S. Pompey, was compulsory on the part of Octavius; and the event, which caused it, occurred (as we have stated) during the boasted consulate of 714. We do not, however, press this point: but we should have been glad to see the argument cleared of every difficulty. For this purpose, perhaps, the wholesale adulation of the poet may suffice: but we must add, also, that we should have been better satisfied not to look in vain into the index of passages illustrated in the Eclogue, for an explanation of the lines "*Pauca tamen suberunt,*" &c. 31, 32, 33.—and, again, of "*Cedet et ipse mari vector,*" &c. 38, 39, 40, 41, 42. These strong and particular instances of the return of the golden age do certainly require some bending and twisting to make them fit the present interpretation: but, perhaps, to alledge the figurative language of a prophecy ultimately, though not immediately, borrowed from the East, may be a good general reply to this class of objections.—We have

* Dio. xxxii. c. 30.

† Horat. Serm. lib. i. 5., and Vet. Schol. in ver. 27.—Conf. Freinshem. Supplement. lib. cxxvii. Livii, c. 24.

only

only to observe farther on the matter of the fourth chapter, that the supposition of two celebrations of the sæcular games by Augustus is learnedly supported; viz. one in the year 715, (the year of the composition of the fourth Eclogue) previous to the discovery of the disorderly arrangement of these games (see p. 177.); and one, after a "reference to the general ratio of the institution," in the year 737: see page 167. to 181. inclusive.

In the course of our last extract from the work, the reader will have observed an allusion to the Astronomicon of Manilius. Throughout the 5th and 6th chapters, these allusions are carried to a great extent; and so close a parallel is drawn between the astrological characters of the birth of Augustus, as introduced into the fourth Eclogue, (according to this hypothesis,) and the same astrological characters of the most exalted destiny as laid down by Manilius, that the scepticism natural to the severest judgment would, we think, be at length convinced that the present author has made out his point, and that he may be allowed to intitle the poem which has hitherto borne the name of "Pollio," by his own designation of "*Genethliacon, C. J. Cæsaris Octaviani.*" The genethliacal table of the first twenty-four years of the life of Octavius, ending with the year of Rome 715, which occupies page 321., (and which we regret that we cannot conveniently transcribe,) places the whole of this division of the argument in the clearest light. In one of the extracts from Manilius, we observe the trifling error of "*Proximus*, ET *alii*," &c.; and, in another, "*Nemæus*" is printed instead of "*Nemeæus*," by which substitution the verse is destroyed. This should have been corrected, as "*Cœlestibus regnis*" has been into *Cælitibus*," in a quotation from the Fasti of Ovid. We may observe, as we proceed, that, in the last-mentioned extract from Manilius, occurs an expression whence Dryden, probably, *borrowed* his idea of the "*green blood*" of herbs and trees:—

"Et *viridis nemori sanguis* decedit, *et herbis.*"

The explanation of the allusion to the goat as the emblem of Augustus, and to the lion as the emblem of Antony, (illustrated by coins of each,) which follows this passage from Manilius, displays great acuteness and ingenuity. A plate is also introduced, containing the zodiacal figures from Leo to Capricorn, which completes the perspicuity of the genethliacon of Augustus.—We have not room for more than a reference to the equally novel and satisfactory division of the Eclogue into certain portions, answering to the several periods of the life of Augustus; and we regret that we cannot transcribe the explanation of the passage "*Alter erit tum Tiphys*," &c. 34, 35, 36., which seems to contain an indisputable allusion to the battle of Pharsalia; nor the adroit, but perhaps rather far-

fetched, illustration of the contested phrase, "*risu cognoscere matrem*," v. 60. by referring to the *family smile* of the descendants of *Erycina ridens*. It is only, however, by perusing the whole of these portions of the work, that any idea of their merit can be formed.

We come now to the last and most interesting chapter. Here the author, having ascertained that 'Octavius, afterwards Augustus Cæsar, whose distinguished destiny it was to re-establish monarchy in Rome, and finally to extend the Roman domination over the most considerable portion of the known world, was the true and proper object of Virgil's celebration in the fourth Eclogue,' proceeds to inquire, '*from what sources* Virgil derived those conceptions, which induced him to represent Octavius, in that early stage of his career, as *a Predicted Monarch*, who should subdue and rule the earth; as *a Divine Sovereign*, who should govern and renovate the world.' Having clearly shewn that Virgil could not have derived such ideas from the mythologies of Greece; having also proved, by the close resemblance to the Astronomicon of Manilius in the imagery and language of the Eclogue, that the supposed similarity to particular passages in the Evangelical Prophet is only accidental, or resulting from a confessed general and remote allusion; having, we say, removed both these obstructions to the course of his argument, the author continues,—Whence did Virgil derive these ideas?

'To this enquiry, the voice of contemporary history returns a prompt and direct reply: he derived them from certain traditionary predictions, of great celebrity and authority in the antient heathen world, known by the name of the Sibylline Prophecies; in which were contained general assurances, *of the birth of* a King *who should rule* the Roman people, *and render himself master of the earth*;—of an Illustrious Sovereign, *who should govern and renovate the world.*

'But if Virgil derived those magnificent conceptions from the Sibylline oracles, from whence did the oracles themselves derive them? This infinitely important question comes next to be resolved: but this will easily be accomplished, if we only take the pains to reflect upon the nature of the conceptions themselves, and upon the channels through which they are reported to have been transmitted. Much has been said by the antient writers, and much discoursed by the moderns, upon the subject of those celebrated oracles; and of the imaginary personages, who, under the name of Sibyls, were supposed to have delivered them. I shall confine my observations entirely to one short and summary testimony, from Ælian the historian; but this I shall select, because it points at once to the various quarters from whence those oracles were supposed to have proceeded; and because it relates, in a very special and conspicuous manner, to the important object of our present investigation. "The number of the Sibyls (says that *heathen writer*, who lived

in

in the first century of our era,) were four; viz. the Erythrean, the Samian, the Egyptian, and the Sardian; but others affirm that there were six more; so as to have been, in all, ten; *of the number of whom were*, the Cumæan and the Judæan.—ἐν' ἦσαν ΚΑΙ ΤΗΝ ΚΥΜΑΙΑΝ ΚΑΙ ΤΗΝ ΙΟΥΔΑΙΑΝ."

'From this observable passage we are able clearly to discover, that the body of prophecies which were ascribed to those Sibyls, and which from thence were denominated *Sibylline*, consisted of an assemblage of rumours, accounted sacred, that circulated in different regions of the ancient world; and that among the sources from whence those rumours were believed to have proceeded, tradition has distinguished, by a very remarkable specification, the Cumæan and the Judæan.

'This is indeed a very notable passage, as it respects our present enquiry. That the sacred Judæan oracles should have contributed their share, in some degree or proportion, towards this accumulated and miscellaneous stock of prophecies, was a consequence naturally resulting from the state of the ancient heathen world, and from the necessary relations between contiguous countries.'

The author goes on to notice an observation of Professor Heyne: but we beg leave to waive it. The Professor appears throughout this volume to manifest disadvantage, and is "*impar congressus*" with our author; although treated by him with all due respect. We proceed, after some omissions:

'There is one great determining fact in history, which brings this question into a very narrow compass, and at once decides the nature of the correspondence subsisting between the Sibylline and the Judæan oracles; which is this, that the great events announced by the former, not only agreed in general form and matter with the predictions contained in the latter; but that they all sought their fulfilment in the *same period of time*.'

We here omit Professor Heyne again, and continue with the present author:

'Let us now enquire, what those respective prophecies declared.

'The prophecies of the Sibyls foretold *the birth of* a King, *who should rule* the Roman people, *and render himself* master of the earth:—*of* an Illustrious Sovereign, *who should govern and renovate the world*. But was this, in fact, *one* or *two* predictions? Did all these splendid particulars relate to *one and the same*, or to *different, and distinct objects?* Virgil, indeed, has blended them together, and has applied them both to the same personage; but were they really so united in the view of the Sibylline prophecies? There is positive ground for affirming, that they were not; that, on the contrary, they regarded two very distinct objects of expectation; that the Roman King who should subdue the earth, was different from the Illustrious Sovereign who should govern the world. This important discrimination has been very generally neglected; yet it did not escape the discernment of the learned Whiston; who, in his dis-

course upon the Sibylline oracles, makes the following just distinction: "I distinguish (says he) this prediction of a King that was to be set over the Romans only—which belongs to *the Capitoline* or Cumæan *Sibyl;* from that more famous, universal, and constant tradition, or prediction, of a King that was to spring from the East and from Judæa, to govern the world, derived from *the other Sibylline oracles.*" This is a correct distribution of the matter to its proper sources. The Sibylline prophecies, in general, had proclaimed the future appearance of a great King from the East: The Cumæan prophecy, in particular, announced the coming of a great King in Rome. We shall now examine, how far these objects corresponded with those which were contained in the true and sacred oracles of Judæa.'—

'The truth is, that the sacred Judæan prophecies had foretold, for several ages, the advent of two great Kings, and at a period nearly coincidental. One of these was indeed our Saviour Jesus Christ, the King and Lord of the whole earth; who should spring from the East, and finally renovate the world. But, the other, in whom the *temporal* interests of the heathen world were perhaps more immediately concerned, and to whom the prediction reported by Cicero and Suetonius ought properly to be referred, was the fourth, and last in order, of the four great Monarchs, whose succession had been twice distinctly foretold by the prophet Daniel. Three of these, namely, the founders of the Babylonian, the Persian, and the Macedonian empires—"Nebuchadnezzar," "Cyrus," and "the King of Grecia,"—had already appeared; and, in their appointed periods, had fulfilled their courses. But the fourth and last, who was to conquer and subdue the earth, and to give origin to a new and universal empire, (that of Rome,) still remained to come.'

The subsequent observations, relating to the confusion of these "*Two Regal Objects of Divine Prophecy,*" by the unbelieving Jews; by Josephus *, in particular; and by the heathen world, especially by Tacitus and Suetonius †; deserve the best attention of the unlearned reader, and will usefully revive and point the recollections of the scholar.

We shall make only one other extract, and that must be brief. The author's remarks on the discrimination of the Christian writers, in viewing these two objects of prophecy as opposed to the confusion and ignorance of the Jews and Heathens, are equally creditable to his judgment and to his piety: but we cannot coincide with him in his dark hints and surmises as

* Josephus de Bello Judaico, lib. 6. c. 5. calls the prophecies concerning these two great objects χρησμος αμφιβολος, but afterward applies them to Vespasian.

† The reference to Cicero in the last extract is to his Epist. *ad Lentulum*, lib. 1., and *De Divin.* lib. 2. The places relate to the Sibylline prophecy of a Roman King. The passages of Tacitus and Suetonius are well known.

to

to the excrescence from the fourth and last empire, respecting the horn of the Roman beast. He checks himself, indeed, in the full career of sanguine interpretation; and, satisfied with this protest for ourselves and caution to our readers, we shall say no more on the subject. Our examination of the present volume will conclude, more appropriately, with the extract which we have just promised; which sums up the last division of the argument concisely and completely; and which accounts, at the same time, for the apparent wildness and overstrained grandeur of Oriental imagery in the fourth Eclogue, when considered as applicable to an earthly King:

'The predictions, which the ignorance of heathenism in these two eminent historians confounded *after the event*, the genius and fancy of Virgil combined, in honour of Octavius, *before the event took place*. Not only the domestic prediction, *of Rome*, was applied by him to his illustrious patron; but likewise that other celebrated prophecy, which pervaded *the Eastern World*. The mind of Virgil was quick to discern a correspondence, between the former of those predictions and the ascending fortunes of Octavius; and being unbounded in his zeal, and having no motive for discriminating, he appropriated to Octavius every prophecy which foretold majesty and greatness.'

We cannot pursue the subsequent elucidations of this remark, nor inquire with the author into such allusions in the fourth Eclogue as may be traced to the fountain-head of prophecy, and such as may be derived from its subordinate streams. The discovery of this distinction will form an interesting occupation for the youthful scholar, who is disposed and able to make it. We here take our leave, then, of a publication from which we have received as much instruction and amusement as from any contemporary octavo volume.

ART. VIII. *Copy of a Letter addressed to the Chancellor of the Exchequer, and Substance of a Speech of Mr. Joseph Hume*, on the third Reading of the Bill (July 21, 1812,) for preventing Frauds and Abuses in the Frame-work-knitting Manufacture, and in the Payment of Persons employed therein. 8vo. pp. 43. 2s. 6d. Stockdale.

THE subject of this Letter and Speech is one of those which, though apparently insulated and unimportant, are replete with matter of serious import to the public tranquillity. The discussion involved in it is connected with those long-continued tumults at Nottingham which produced so much disquietude to the public, and cast such a reflection on the conduct of our

executive government. Our ill-fated Orders in Council having caused a great falling off in the export-branch of our Nottingham manufactures, various expedients were suggested to remedy the distress. The workmen, acting from the limited views which are natural to their humble sphere, long since urged the masters to desist from the manufacture of inferior and low-priced goods; under the erroneous notion that the absence of such articles from the market would necessitate a demand for those of a dearer sort. Towards the close of the last session, a proposition to this effect came before Parliament, and received, for a time, (however odd it may appear,) the support of ministers. It was under this alarming prospect, Mr. Hume informs us, that he thought it was due to the future tranquillity of the manufacturing districts to exert himself in opposition to the bill. He had long been occupied with the consideration of the irregularities committed at Nottingham; and while, on the one hand, no doubt could be entertained of the propriety of ascribing the dullness of trade to our impolitic quarrel with America, he was, on the other, perfectly satisfied that the disorders among the manufacturers took their rise from a different cause, viz. from the inequality and injustice of our laws relative to master and workman.

In tracing the origin of these laws, as well as of many others of a similar description, we go back to a time at which our countrymen could not be deeply read in the principles of commerce. These regulations are founded on the plausible notion that the true way of cheapening manufacture is to give the master a compulsory power over the workman. Another notion, equally sagacious in itself, and equally instrumental in suggesting these laws, was the belief that manufacture was arrived at as great nicety as it could reach. It never occurred to these profound politicians, that a wide field still remained open for improvement; and that the best way for all parties was to let the artisan reap the full reward of his exertion and ingenuity. Several of our legislators, of the present day are, we fear, hardly more advanced than their ancestors.—Two objects, it appears, were contemplated by the promoters of the bill in question; an increase of the lace-trade, and a termination of the disputes about wages. Nothing could be more desirable than both of these circumstances; and nothing, we must add, less likely to effect them, than the course proposed in the bill. First, as to increase of trade, Mr. Hume shews (p. 4. 7. 31, 32, 33.) that the demand for various sorts of manufacture is absolutely dependant on their being low-priced. Goods intended

tended for foreign markets are made, it is well known, of inferior quality, for the plain reason that few countries can afford to pay such high prices as we give. This remark is as applicable to the fabrics of Birmingham and Sheffield as to those of Nottingham. Moreover, many cases may occur in which articles are bought as much for shew as for use; and any obligation on the consumer to buy a dearer and more durable commodity makes him a loser to the extent of the difference of price. This important point is aptly illustrated by circumstances coming under Mr. Hume's personal observation, in a recent voyage to Turkey. The French have possession of that market, in consequence of their having long ago adopted the plan of supplying it with that slight and shewy kind of cloth which suits the taste of the consumers, and the manufacture of which among us would be prohibited by the proposed bill.

'In June 1810, I saw at Cairo French cloths that had been manufactured in Languedoc, and transported *by land* through Italy and the territories of Austria and the Porte to Constantinople, whence they were shipped for Egypt, and sold, after paying all expences, at a profit of 30 per cent. to the merchant, though strong English cloths would not at that time bring the prime cost and expences.

'Every Turk, who can afford himself a new dress, must have one every year, whether his former dress may be worn out or not, and he will consequently purchase that kind of cloth that will wear for one year, look as good as the strongest kind would do, and be at the same time the cheapest. The French cloth is such as will answer his purpose for one year; and, being one-third cheaper than the English, will be therefore preferred, though a purchaser in England would prefer one dress of English cloth to two of French, from the greater service he would receive from it. — Some people have supposed that the French cloths were preferred on account of the superiority of their colours; but I have no reason to think so from the statements of the Turks themselves, and of merchants residing in Turkey and Egypt.

'I cannot shew the impropriety of our entertaining the prohibition in the manufacture of cheap lace, better than by supposing that the weavers of woollen cloth were now to apply to the members for Yorkshire to get a bill passed, to prevent any woollen cloth from being made at a lower price than 15 or 20 shillings per yard, under the idea that, if there was no coarse cloth at 5 or 10 shillings a yard, the poor people would be obliged to purchase the cloth at 20 shillings to make their coats of.'

The impolicy of interfering with a cheap manufacture, for the sake of selling a dearer, must now be so clear as to require no farther illustration. It remains merely to add that the distress

[redacted] manufacturers would have been doubly aggravated [redacted] proposed measure, because purchasers would have been [redacted] the rival fabrics of Buckingham and Loughborough, the success of which had already contributed to [redacted] Birmingham.

[redacted] next to consider the second provision of the bill, viz. the [redacted] for terminating disputes on the subject of wages. [redacted] pernicious clauses, this was productive of the greatest [redacted] It proposed that the rate of wages should be "fixed [redacted] by the masters, who were to be subject to a [redacted] if they gave either more or less than the agreed prices." [redacted] regulation might not be unsuitable in a case of mere [redacted] the carriage of goods by bulk from one place to [redacted] but it is wholly out of the question in cases in which [redacted] dexterity are requisite. If it be a matter of difficulty [redacted] workmen to finish their task alike, where is the [redacted] of the policy of equalizing their rate of payment? 'Every [redacted] which would prevent the master from paying more for a [redacted] for a middling article, is a direct and serious check [redacted] exertions of the industrious, and the improvements of [redacted] ingenious.' We have no example, adds Mr. Hume, of any [redacted] line of business in this country, in which wages are [redacted] by previous writings. Regulations of that nature, as [redacted] they coerce the workman, are impolitic, because his [redacted] is as much a part of the public wealth as the capital [redacted] master; and, like all other interferences in trade by the [redacted] power, they tend to overthrow that which they were [redacted] to establish.

'In 1766 the silk trade was very dull in Spital-fields, work became scarce, and some workmen, rather than be idle, were induced to work for wages lower than they had received when trade was brisk; an outcry was raised by the body of the workmen against the reduction of their wages, and the riots which took place terrified the Government, and induced them to pass that act, the 13th of George III. c. 8., empowering the magistrates to fix and regulate the wages, from time to time, agreeably to the demands of the workmen or masters; on the erroneous opinion that any law could oblige a manufacturer to pay, for any considerable time, a higher rate of wages than the trade could afford.

'When trade was brisk, it was very easy for the men to get their wages raised by the magistrates; but, when any stagnation, or want of demand ensued, the masters always found it a very difficult matter to get any reduction made. The natural consequence followed, that the masters, rather than manufacture to a loss, left off by degrees particular branches of their trade, and the workmen themselves experienced eventually the greatest loss; for the trade of ribbons was removed to Coventry, Leek, &c.; gauze to Paisley, Reading, &c. [redacted] where

where the rate of wages was such as would enable the merchant to manufacture to a profit; and the number of weavers in Spital-fields have gradually decreased from 50 to 22,000 hands, chiefly from that cause.

'It would be considered a monstrous proposition, if I, extending the principle of the 13th of George III., were to propose to introduce a bill into this House, to compel landlords to let their land to farm at such a rate per acre as two or more Justices, on the requisition of the tenants, should think proper to fix, without any provision being made for the different rates which different kinds of land ought to afford; and, without leaving any kind of discretion with the landlords how to act, otherwise than, either to agree to let their land for the rates fixed by the magistrates, or to allow the land to lie uncultivated.'

The case is here made so clear, that we cannot help wondering from what quarter any support could be afforded for so absurd a proposition as a compulsory regulation of wages. Nothing can manifest a more superficial view of the causes of general discontent, than the resort to an act of parliament for the cure of an evil, the origin of which lies much deeper than the provisions of any temporary decree of the legislature. Willingly, if our limits permitted us, would we enter on the judicious reasoning (p. 25.) of the author on this view of the subject, and on the inefficacy of past examples: but it is now time to give a brief history of the bill. It was introduced into the House of Commons in the end of June last; and, as it appeared likely to pass, Mr. Hume wrote his Letter to the Chancellor of the Exchequer on the 12th of July. A deputation of the Nottingham manufacturers having by this time come up to London to oppose the bill, the parliamentary committee which had already sat on a subject connected with it was re-appointed, and Mr. Hume was added to their number. The consequence of this reconsideration was the striking out of every thing in the bill which was connected with the hosiery trade; and a limitation of its provisions to the lace-trade, and then only for a given time. As this was merely a qualification of the mischief, Mr. Hume made a speech (21st July) against the third reading of the bill: but his arguments, cogent as they were, proved unavailing, and the bill passed the House of Commons, affording a striking example of legislative inattention to matters of trade. A few days afterward, it made its appearance in the House of Lords, where it was opposed, as we might expect, by Lords Lauderdale and Holland; as well as by a third person, whose voice is at present of more consequence to our commerce, Lord Liverpool. Here, therefore, the bill fell to the ground.

The

The last session of parliament will long be memorable for the successful vindication of the true principles of commercial policy, by Mr. Brougham and the other advocates of conciliation with America. The question which we have now noticed belongs to the same class. It came on later in the session, and attracted comparatively little attention: but, had its progress not been arrested, the complaints of which it would have been productive might have resounded from one end of the kingdom to the other.

ART. IX. *Account of the Conquest of Mauritius*, with some Notices on the History, Soil, Products, Defences, and the Political Importance of this Island. To which is added, a Sketch explanatory of the Military Operations. By an Officer who served on the Expedition. 8vo. pp. 65. (With a Plan of Port Louis.) 4s. Boards. Egerton. 1811.

WE have no difficulty in agreeing with the judicious author of this little work, that military actions which are performed with unexpected facility are not on that account less instructive objects of inquiry and examination. The grand means of ensuring success consist in the previous preparation; and whether we look back to our own Marlborough on the morning before the battle of Ramillies, or to Bonaparte in the night before the fatal conflict of Austerlitz, we shall find that the highest exertion of talent was called forth before the moment of emergency. The rapid success that attended our attack on Mauritius seems to have been chiefly owing to two causes; the magnitude of the force employed, and the weakness (on the land-side at least) of Port Louis, the capital. Bengal, Madras, Bombay, Ceylon, and the Cape, were all required to contribute a proportion of troops, and the number actually landed was not, we believe, over-rated at 12,000 men; forming the largest and best equipped armament which has been known on the Indian seas. To this force, the French could oppose only 2,500 regulars, and 6,000 militia; the latter, whether disaffected or not, being wholly unfit to withstand the attack of our army.

Previously to the assemblage of the grand expedition under General Abercrombie, a detachment of 4,000 men was landed in the end of June (1810,) on the Isle of Bourbon, and succeeded, after a brilliant action, in obtaining possession of it. This advantage was unexpectedly followed by that succession of naval disappointments which is so affectingly described in the published letter of Captain Pym of the Sirius frigate. The divi-

sions

sions forming the expedition, with the exception of that which came from the Cape, being united, 22d Nov. (1810,) the commander determined not to waste a day. Sailing from the small island of Roderigues, the fleet anchored, a week afterward, in a narrow passage on the north side of the island of Mauritius, at the distance of about fifteen miles from Port Louis. So regularly was the disembarkation conducted, that, before the evening, 10,000 men were on shore with stores and provisions. No time was lost in beginning the march. After having advanced seven miles through woods and wretched roads, a temporary halt was permitted in the middle of the night: but the march was resumed before day-break, and continued till noon, when it became necessary to take a position. At five o'clock in the afternoon, the march was once more resumed, and was pursued with such dispatch as to give us possession of an important bridge on a river by the way before the French could destroy it. Our troops now came within sight of the enemy's lines, and sustained a partial loss in emerging from a wood that was exposed to the enemy's fire: but, driving the advanced corps of the French off the scene of this desultory action, they deployed in the evening at the distance of a mile only from the French lines. The lateness of the hour, and the fatigue of the troops from the intense heat, made it necessary to delay a general attack till the next day. By that time, however, the enemy, awed by the magnitude of our force and the ability of our commander, offered to surrender on terms, which, after some modification, were accepted; General Abercrombie considering it as better to suffer the French troops to return home than to incur the risk of an assault, attended as it must have been with a serious sacrifice of our men, and the damage of a city which was built entirely of wood.

It has been the policy of France to exaggerate the strength of Mauritius: but the boast of impregnability applies only to the defence of Port Louis towards the sea. The shoals of coral surrounding the island, and said to be impassable, except in front of Port Louis, are found to be broken in various places by the mouths of rivers. It is no wonder, therefore, that, with our naval skill, we ascertained the means of accomplishing a landing; and the chief fault of the governor, M. de Caen, appears to have consisted in a too confident expectation of our being obliged to direct our attack against the port. Though the author seems to exaggerate (p. 42.) the means of defence within De Caen's reach, the necessity of uniting a large force for the attack of Mauritius is apparent on considering that the population of the island exceeds 100,000. The great draw-back on our means of preserving the settlement, during a future war, will evidently

dently arise from the doubtful attachment of a foreign population.

The Isles of Bourbon and Mauritius were discovered by the Portuguese so far back as 1505: but the first regular settlement in Mauritius was on the part of the Dutch in 1644. In 1657, the wreck of the French establishments of Madegascar sought refuge in the Isle of Bourbon. The Dutch, having in 1711 become masters of the Cape of Good Hope, abandoned Mauritius; which the French from Bourbon immediately occupied, giving to it the name of Isle of France. The prosperity of these colonies has been owing chiefly to M. de la Bourdonnaie, who became the governor of them in 1735. He constructed roads, and formed bridges, mills, quays, canals, and aqueducts: he favoured the planting of sugar, cotton, and indigo; and, which was much more important, he introduced the cultivation of the mandioc, the food of the negroes, and the frequent preservative of the colony from famine. Twenty years ago, in the ferment of the French Revolution, this colony caught the infection: but, in the year 1795, sober views were so far restored that, on the arrival of orders for the sudden abolition of slavery, the inhabitants, shocked at the picture of St. Domingo, unanimously resolved to disobey. Its subsequent dangers have arisen not from a foreign enemy, but from the connection formed by two successive garrisons with female negroes; and this, on both occasions, led to schemes of emancipation, which the inhabitants anticipated, by sending these dangerous defenders off the island. On the possession passing into our hands, the anxious question in all societies was, whether the island should be subjected to the India Company's monopoly? Had this been the case, the efforts of industry would have been cramped; and this country would have known scarcely any other benefit from the expensive conquest than the increased patronage of India-Directors. The importance of the acquisition, in rooting out a nest of privateers, is to be estimated by those only who know the history of our Indian navigation. Could the conquest have been accomplished earlier in the war, it would have been the means of saving to this country the sum of many millions, if to actual losses we add the difference of the rates of insurance.

We extract the present writer's account of the capital, accompanied by a few remarks on the manners of the colonists:

'Port Louis contains about six thousand houses; they are chiefly constructed of wood, and seldom rise above two stories. The outer sides of them are painted, and kept in the cleanest order; inside they are carefully ornamented in a style approaching to Parisian taste and elegance. Many have gardens adjoining, and frequently

you are delighted with the sight of woodbines and shrubs of aromatic odor, hanging over the windows, and gently entwining the airy structures which support them. The principal streets are straight, broad, and shaded by rows of lofty trees. The town resembles an amphitheatre, being situated in a valley, opening to the sea on one side, and on the other surrounded by a grand range of mountains, whose declivities are diversified with rugged and broken precipices; at intervals limpid streams gush forth and fall down the rocks: the rich foliage of the woods crown their summits.

'The inhabitants receive foreigners with the utmost politeness and hospitality. Many of them are of the antient noblesse families, who, being weary of the scenes exhibited in their native country, have sought shelter and repose in this agreeable retreat. A great deal of cordiality and mutual and unaffected kindness exist in their society. The visiting hour is about eight o'clock in the evening, and you take your leave at ten, unless invited to stay for supper. The supposed reigning vice is gallantry. And both sexes are passionately fond of dancing, an exercise in which they excel. The men are well made, and the number of elegant females are surprising; they are remarkably handsome, have a great deal of wit and vivacity, and are very engaging in their manners.

'Here the longest and shortest days of the year differ only an hour.

'Disease is hardly known in the Isle of France, and the climate is uncommonly wholesome and temperate.'

As a composition, this little book is intitled to a favourable report, since it is the work of a person whose professional labours are represented as very different from those of literature. It so seldom happens that a young author knows where to stop, that we are taught to consider brevity as a first-rate recommendation. The style is very perspicuous; and, had it been divested of a certain quaintness, (see p. 21. and the introduction,) it could not have failed to be generally acceptable.

MONTHLY CATALOGUE,
For DECEMBER, 1812.

POETRY.

Art. 10. *Napoleon:* a Poem; in which that arch Apostate from the Cause of Liberty is held up to the just Indignation of an injured People. Concluding with an Address to France. Dedicated to the British Army in Spain. By the Rev. C. Colton, M. A. Fellow of King's College, Cambridge. Author of "Hypocrisy," a satirical Poem. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Hatchard.

"Some rhyme a *neebor's* name to lash;"

nd the reverend author before us appears to be one of these rhymers, nce he presents to the British army, and his readers in general, about

about twenty pages of uninterrupted invective against Bonaparte; which, however just, is rather tiresome, and is enlivened only by the trite comparisons of him with Nero and Cromwell, a Hurricane and a Hydra. The vehemence with which this writer treats his subject has not given energy to his verse; and it has so little chance of wringing "Napoleon's" conscience, that we must console Mr. Colton and ourselves by hoping, in the words of Dante, that

"*li suoi dispetti*
Sono al suo petto assai debiti fregi."

Art. 11. *Anster Fair:* a Poem. In Six Cantos. Crown 8vo. 3s. Printed at Edinburgh. 1812.

This burlesque performance is written with so much humour, that it would afford uninterrupted amusement if it were shorter: but the author "goes on, and sings of fairs and shows," through six cantos. Notwithstanding, therefore, the ingenuity which he displays, he will find few readers disposed to laugh to the end of his song, and still fewer inclined to tolerate the epithets of his own compounding which occur in almost every stanza, such as 'lack-nose-visages;' '*Harp-fumbling* Theban;' '*Ocean-thumping* hulks;' '*hedge-lined* highway;' and '*lynx-sharp* eye.' The expression at page 57., '*ice* thrice *baked* beneath the pole,' is absolute nonsense: but pages 58. and 59. contain a description of Maggie Lauder, which, though disfigured by hyperbole, is pleasing and poetical; and on the whole, the poem is creditable to the talents of the writer.

Art. 12. *Poetical Effusions:* consisting of the Birth of Friendship, the Birth of Affection, and the Birth of Sensibility. By Miss M'Cauley. Crown 8vo. pp. 130. Boards. Sotheran, Everett Street, Brunswick Square. 1812.

Although we cannot enter into all the sentimental refinements of this lady, nor soar with her in every rapturous flight, yet we find some rational and pleasing ideas in 'The Birth of Happiness,' and evidences of a poetical though romantic mind in all these compositions. — We must add, however, that the fair author employs too many abbreviations, and that in some instances her grammar is not perfectly correct.

Art. 13. *Specimens of a new Translation of Juvenal.* 8vo. pp. 20. Printed at Oxford. 1812.

The Satires of 'this sententious and powerful Roman' have been often attempted in English verse, and, in a few instances, with a success which seems to preclude the necessity of future versions: but, if persons should think that a task which has been well performed may still be improved, and that more complete justice may yet be rendered to the Satires of Juvenal, which for 'closeness and strength of expression' are deservedly celebrated, they have an undoubted right to try their skill in a new translation. Let them be aware, however, that they enter the field under great disadvantages; and that the critic is authorised, by instituting a comparison between the new attempt and the best of preceding versions, to bring the matter in question to a speedy issue: — but, declining this invidious contrast, we shall simply

advert to a few passages in this specimen, and leave the public to judge how far it is intitled to their patronage.

Sat. I. l. 15. — "*Expectes eadem à summo minimoque poëtâ.*"

'The worst of poets *love* them, and the best.'

Love is not a happy word in this place; it is not the idea conveyed by *expectes*.

Sat. I. l. 22. "*Cum tener uxorem ducat spado*"

is rendered,

'When soft *Emasculates* take to their arms
The wedded wife.'

The often-quoted passage,

L. 30. ——— "*Nam quis iniquæ*
Tam patiens urbis, tam ferreus, ut teneat se?"

is not given with equal strength of expression in the following couplet:

'For who so all enduring, and so steel'd
'Gainst Rome's iniquity, as *nought to feel.*'

Juvenal means to say not only that he feels but that he cannot *restrain* his indignation.

The preceding line,

"*Difficile est satyram non scribere,*"

is very tamely rendered by

'Who would not satire write?'

L. 48—50. ——— "*Et hic damnatus inani*
Judicio (quid enim salvis infamia nummis?)
Exul ab octavâ Marius bibit, et fruitur Diis
Iratis: at tu victrix provincia ploras."

The sense of this passage is obscured in the new version by an awkward transposition:

'Or Marius, sentenc'd by a vote *inane*,
In exile sits at ease, and laughs to scorn
The angry gods, and drinks *from earliest dawn*,
His province mourns her too successful pains,
For what is infamy when wealth remains?'

Take away the original, and the reader would be at a loss to understand the last line; which by its position refers to the province, and not to Marius. '*From earliest dawn*' conveys the meaning of the *ab octavâ* [*horâ*] of the satirist, but then an explanatory note is requisite. *Octava hora* signifies not eight o'clock in the morning, but *two* in the afternoon; and it was considered by the Romans as an instance of extreme dissoluteness for a man to begin an intemperate festival at so early an hour.

L. 89. ——— "*Neque enim loculis comitantibus itur*
Ad casum tabulæ, positâ sed luditur arcâ.
Prælia quanta illic dispensatore videbis
Armigero!"

The sense but not the spirit of these lines appears in the new version:

'No more the casket's stak'd upon the throw,
The very chest which holds *their all must go.*
See the reluctant steward yield his trust
Midst blows and broils —*yield it at last he must.*'

'Their all must go' — and 'yield it at last he must'—are flat and insipid addenda, which good taste will not tolerate.

We mean not, however, to insinuate that this translator uniformly fails. His version of the passage in the third Satire, beginning *Hic tunc Umbritius*, is very neatly exhibited:

'Here first Umbritius — since for honest arts
No room is left, nor toil reward imparts;
Since my small fortune, daily smaller grown,
Will be still less ere sets to-morrow's sun;
And of that little, which makes all my store,
Each coming day rubs off some fragment more;
'Tis now my purpose thither to retreat,
Where flying Dædalus resum'd his feet:
While time is just beginning o'er my brow,
My strength entire, to cast his earliest snow;
While still for Lachesis some thread remains
To wind, and still no staff my feet sustains.'

Though we do not positively discourage this new translator of Juvenal, we must earnestly advise him to beware of tameness, and to remember that vigor of expression is indispensable. If he should be induced to persevere, let him by all means subjoin notes to his text; because without explanations Juvenal will be unintelligible to the mere English reader.

NOVELS.

Art. 14. *The Adventures of an Ostrich Feather of Quality.* 12mo. 4s. Boards. Sherwood and Co. 1812.

The Ostrich Feather does not speak like a feather of quality, when it says, 'yes, Miss,' to its fair owner; and no excuse can be found for detailing a dialogue in such vulgar language as that of the two women-servants at a dance, since it is not seasoned with a spice of humour. Some real characters appear to be introduced into this tale, but they add to it little interest. The whole is, indeed, "light as a feather;" and it contains a story without mark or likelihood, which makes no impression, and inculcates no moral.

Art. 15. *Recueil de Nouvelles*, &c. A Collection of Tales. By Madame de Montolieu, Author of "Caroline de Litchfield," "La Princesse de Wolfenbuttle," &c. 12mo. 3 Vols. Printed at Paris; and reprinted for Colburn, London.

'The Old Batchelor' appears to us the most amusing and original of these tales; 'The Two Visits,' and 'The Dream,' are full of improbabilities; and 'Little Anthony' is calculated for a more juvenile collection: but they are all interesting, and contain many pleasing descriptions and touches of real feeling.

Art. 16. *Friends Unmasked;* or Scenes in real Life. By A. A. Hutchinson, Author of "The Exhibitions of the Heart," &c. 12mo. 3 Vols. 1l. Boards. Longman and Co.

We have vainly endeavoured to trace in this novel a resemblance to any 'scenes' which can be supposed to occur in 'real life;' since the incidents are so utterly improbable that, if there be truth in any of them, it must be

"*quel ver ch' ha faccia di menzogna;*"

and as such it can excite but little sympathy in the reader. The general style of the letters is romantic and inflated; while, in those which seem intended to divert, incorrect spelling is the only substitute for humour. Though we are sorry to speak unfavourably of an author who appears to wish well to the cause of morality, we can only lament,

"That wishing well had not a body in't
Which might be felt,"

for the sake of those writers "whose baser stars do shut them up in wishes," and whose works, like that which is before us, seem totally inadequate to the purposes for which they are said to be intended.

CATHOLIC QUESTION.

Art. 17. *A View of the Case of the Roman Catholics.* 8vo. 1s. Hatchard. 1812.

Art. 18. *The Claims of the Roman Catholics considered with Reference to the Safety of the Established Church,* and the Rights of religious Toleration. 8vo. pp. 176. Cadell and Davies. 1812.

Art. 19. *The Securities for the Established Religion considered, and the Test defended,* in a Letter addressed to the Right Hon. Earl Grey. 8vo. pp. 52. 2s. Hatchard. 1812.

Art. 20. *A few plain Questions and Observations on the Catholic Emancipation,* for Men who dare think for themselves, in the nineteenth Century. By Walter Bromley, Paymaster, 23d Regiment of Welsh Fusileers. 8vo. 1s. All Booksellers. 1812.

While a Pretender to the British throne existed who was a bigotted Catholic, Romanism was contemplated entirely through a political medium, and no law was deemed too severe in its operation against the members of that communion. Now, however, when this cause of alarm has disappeared, and the public mind has recovered from its apprehensions, it is generally admitted that many acts are to be found in the statute-book which the spirit of the times will not permit us to put in force against the Catholics. These acts are enumerated *in the View of their Case,* and these even the opposers of Emancipation (as it is called) are willing to repeal: but, if it be asked, *will the Catholics be satisfied by this repeal of acts which it would be the extreme of persecution to enforce?* the answer is ready, *No.* They contend that, by the removal of all restrictions, they should be put on a par at least with other Dissenters from the Establishment; and it is the object of the author of *the Case,* to shew that the concessions for which the

Catholics plead would not endanger the security of the Constitution, either in spirituals or temporals. As the chief difficulty which seems to present itself, in affording to the Catholics the free exercise of their religion, is their subordination to the See of Rome, the author ventures to suggest that this difficulty may be obviated; 'if such an explanation be given, under the sanction of the Pope, or of the body of the Roman Catholic clergy within the United Kingdom, of the light in which they consider the supremacy of the Pope, and if they will solemnly renounce certain tenets said to be erroneously attributed to them.' As to ourselves, we perceive not the necessity of a reference to the See of Rome: but, if such be required, the political state of Europe precludes, for the present, the necessary communication, and of course must postpone the period of Catholic Emancipation. Surely the parliament of the United Kingdom would degrade itself by taking any notice of the consent and approbation of the See of Rome, even could it be obtained, to any measure that might be adopted by the English or Irish Catholics.

In the author of *the Claims Considered*, we meet with a most strenuous advocate for the Established Church, and an equally-strenuous opponent of the present views of the Catholics. He regards the Established Church as 'identified with the state itself;' and, fearful of change, he cannot assent to the removal of any one of those securities by which it has been upheld. According to him, the object of government ought so principally to be the protection of the Established Religion, that considerations of general policy should not interfere with its safety, and that all power should be exclusively confided to those who profess it. Yet, to prevent the complaints of Nonconformists, who may think that, by this monopoly of power and emolument by the members of the National Church, they are reduced to the condition of *Helots*, or of *mere hewers of wood and drawers of water*, who are permitted to do all the labour and bear all the burdens of the state, but prohibited from enjoying any of its emoluments; it is here *very sagely* remarked 'that the exclusive principle is favourable to Nonconformists;'—'that the test-laws are beneficial to persons of that description, by enabling the state to *afford* them the *inestimable benefit* of religious toleration;'—and 'that *the rights which they enjoy are infinitely more valuable than power and office.*' This mode of reasoning may be deemed by the author very ingenious, but we suspect that the whole body of Dissenters will regard it as nothing short of absurdity and insult. If, as he allows, 'all men are naturally fond of power,' can he suppose that such flimsy sophistry as he has here employed will suppress in the minds of Non-conformists *that love of power?* Can, indeed, any dexterity in the art of logic persuade those who are excluded from all places of trust and honour by the test-laws, that these laws '*involve neither disgrace nor hardship?*' Would such a representation be palatable to the author himself if he were in the number of the excluded? Would he relish being gravely told by a person who had obtained possession of his birth-right, that he ought not to regard himself as aggrieved, because this property enabled him (the unjust possessor) to *afford* him (the wronged person) *the inestimable benefit of charity?* In our opinion, the mode by which the author of *the Claims Considered* advocates

cates the cause of the Established Church is rather irritating than persuasive. To Protestant Non-conformists, who are well acquainted with the principles of civil and religious liberty, it will appear ludicrous; and to Roman Catholics, particularly to those of Ireland, it will be offensive. The Catholics of Ireland are accused of a contumacious disposition and a jesuitical character in their violation of the Convention-act. On the difficult subject of the *veto*, the writer contends that it would not obstruct the free exercise of the Catholic Religion; and that the opposition of the Catholic bishops to this measure is not calculated to inspire any confidence in the assurances which may proceed from the Catholic body, but must prove an insurmountable obstacle to the admission of their claims. Yet, supposing the *veto* to be granted, this writer would not be satisfied; since he regards it as inadequate to the securities for which it is to be substituted. In short, the argument is that the claims of the Irish Roman Catholics must at all events be resisted; because, under the pretext of seeking to be admitted to the benefits of the Constitution, they are evidently meditating its destruction, with the subversion of all those principles which were so happily established at the Revolution. A long chapter is employed to shew that Popery is unchanged; that its hostility to civil and religious liberty is radical and inveterate; that persecution, as 'a conservative principle,' is essential to it; and that, however the general doctrine that "*faith is not to be kept with heretics*" may be disclaimed by modern Papists as making no part of their creed, the qualified doctrine that "no faith is to be kept with heretics *to the prejudice of the church*" is as much an article of belief now as at any former period. To establish this point, the doctrine and practice of the Council of Constance in the condemnation and execution of John Huss are introduced, for the sake of taking notice of the comments on that transaction by a Professor in the Royal College of Maynooth. In addition, it is urged that 'the Church of Rome still maintains and inculcates, on the infallible authority of its general councils, principles which are at direct variance both with civil and religious liberty; that the supremacy of the Pope renders this church a formidable rival to civil government, and creates a foreign interest and excentric influence which destroys the harmony of the social system.' These objections to the nature and spirit of Popery are well arranged, and forcibly stated; and though it may be urged that the pretensions of Popery are as preposterous as they are high, and consequently that the absurdity of the system will counteract the dangers which are apprehended from it, still it is very proper that Protestants should be on the alert, and not forget the horrors which the Catholics, under the pretext of serving the Church, have inflicted on mankind. Looking at the past, it may perhaps be prudent for a Protestant government to be more vigilant against the influence of that religion, than against any other principle of dissent. — In conclusion, it is intimated that the Catholics will not be satisfied by having their present demands conceded, that other objects are still behind, and that the grant of Catholic Emancipation would be but the opening of Pandora's box. Thus the author of *the Claims Considered* resists, with all his might, the projects

of the Catholics, and displays no inconsiderable portion of energetic zeal in behalf of our Protestant Establishment.

The writer of *the Letter to Lord Grey* takes the same side with the preceding author: but he does not enter so much at length into the question, nor does he argue with equal energy. He pleads for the continuance of the existing securities of the Established Religion, and offers it as his opinion that, if the preponderance of Catholics in the population of Ireland should render it politic to give Popery a sort of establishment by the removal of civil disabilities from the members of that sect, yet, from the difference of circumstances in the case of English Catholics, the argument ought not to extend to England. Either with design or from ignorance he misrepresents the reasoning against the Test-laws, deduced from *natural* rights: 'I do not,' says he, 'understand what natural right any man can have to be either a judge or an exciseman.' No man ever thought that he had such a natural right. The principle asserted is merely *eligibility* to appointment, and the removal of the black patch of legal disability for office on the score of religious faith. With similar misapprehension of the question at issue, he farther asks, 'How does the abolishing of any distinction in place and power bring us nearer to the object of allaying [religious] dissentions?' Controversy, no doubt, will continue to exist: but it would not then be sharpened by motives of secular interest and ambition. When he farther puts the question, 'whether, without the rallying point of the sacramental test, *Christianity* itself is not in danger?', we smile, and wish him a good night.

Mr. Walter Bromley's doctrine is completely at variance with that of the defenders of tests and civil exclusions on account of religion. His advice is short, and perhaps sensible: it is this, 'Give the Bible and Emancipation to the Catholics, then religion will find a cure for its own disease.' This plain-speaking man does not hesitate to pronounce that our treatment of the Irish, for adhering to the religion of their forefathers, is 'unwarrantable tyranny.' Instead of trembling at the idea of the growth of Popery, he places it in a ludicrous point of view, and tells us as a matter of fact that he found in his late travels in Spain and Portugal 'all the inhabitants on whom he was quartered, and even some of the priests, prepared to receive the Bible.' As a publication, Mr. Bromley's pamphlet has no great merit, but he seems to possess strong natural sense.

WEST INDIES.

Art. 21. *West India Claims on the Mother Country and Legislature.* By a British Planter. 8vo. pp. 124. 4s. Lloyd.

Though written with very little skill in composition, this tract contains an useful summary of the leading arguments in the case of the West India planters. A continuance of the distillation from sugar, and of the preference of rum in the consumption of the navy, are recommended by a course of reasoning, which, if devoid of novelty, has the merit of judgment and perspicuity. That absurd restriction by which we prohibit the planter from refining his sugar on the spot, and which is seriously conceived to be founded on good policy, is held

held up (p. 77.) to merited ridicule; and its two-fold injury to the planter, with regard both to sugar and to rum, is very clearly exposed. (p. 84.) The author ventures also to dwell on the justice of equalizing the tax on rum and British spirits, and of leaving the choice between the two entirely to the option of the public. He reminds the landholders that the amount of their rental will be found to bear a tolerably exact proportion to the commercial prosperity of the country; and he calls in the aid of Postlethwayt, a witness of undoubted impartiality: but it is not by argument, we apprehend, however temperately urged, that the landholders are to be shaken in their strongly-rooted predilection for corn-bounties and exclusive preferences. Few of them are in the habit of pursuing a course of reasoning sufficiently far to arrive at a discovery of their errors in political arithmetic; present advantage is their chief consideration; and the belief of first impressions is frequently the whole extent, in these respects at least, of the exercise of their intellectual faculties. The cure, when it does come, must proceed from Government; and it must be the work of a minister possessing sufficient authority with the country to be enabled to prevent any farther increase of the scale of prices, which at present affect the importation of corn.

In treating of the use of sugar in the distillery, the author of this pamphlet adduces a precedent for its adoption and for the prohibition of malt so early as the year 1699. At that time, the import of sugar from our colonies was between 30 and 40,000 hhds., amounting, in value, to somewhat more than half a million. If, he says, the substitution of sugar in the distillery was supposed to be adviseable in those days, when we grew more corn than we consumed, how much more should it be our policy now, when we are under the necessity of paying several millions annually to supply the deficiency of our crops?

The condition of the negroes in the West Indies is discussed by this writer, with the view of satisfying the public that their situation is better than that of our own labouring poor. We extract the principal provisions of a law on this subject, which is annually passed by the House of Assembly in Jamaica, and called the Consolidated Slave-act.

1. —— "Every proprietor must allot a sufficient portion of land to each negro for his subsistence, and allow him sufficient time to cultivate it."

2. —— "If a slave becomes disabled or infirm, his master must maintain him."

3. —— "All slaves must be provided with proper clothing once a year by their owners."

4. —— "Persons willfully killing slaves to suffer death."

5. —— "Persons wantonly or cruelly whipping or maltreating slaves, or keeping them in confinement without proper support, to be fined, or imprisoned, at the discretion of the Supreme Court of Judicature, or Courts of Assize."

6. —— "Besides the usual holidays at Christmas, Easter, and Whitsuntide, one day in every fortnight, exclusive of Sundays, to be allowed slaves, except during crop time."

The advantage of relaxing our monopoly, and of permitting the planter to sell his surplus produce to neutrals, is very explicitly stated at p. 93. It deserves to be recorded among the endless mischiefs brought on us by our Orders in Council, that they were the cause of our losing the American market for our rum. The following paragraph in the petition of the Assembly of Jamaica to the Prince Regent, dated 10th December 1811, discloses this mortifying fact.

"Formerly rum was consumed in the United States to a considerable extent; upwards of 30,000 puncheons were taken away from this island annually, and bore some proportion to the value of the imports. So late as 1804, upwards of 20,000 puncheons were exported. During the last three years, the rum sent to the United States has been only 5388 puncheons annually; and in value not more than one-tenth part of the importations. Unfortunately there is no prospect of the demand for rum augmenting; it is now little used by the Americans; their own corn-spirits have been substituted and preferred."

The passages in this pamphlet which seem to us least useful are an historical preamble relative to the early settlements in the West Indies; and a string of extracts (p. 19.) from our statute-book, made for the purpose of shewing that as much severity prevails in the enactments of the mother-country about compelling labour, as in our colonial regulations. Such statements as these are neither new nor necessary; and the author would have done better to have confined himself to the introduction of recent documents, such as (p. 99.) the list of quarterly payments to our revenue on the score of sugar-duty, and the resolutions of the different parishes in Jamaica on their distressed condition in 1811. — We close our notice of this tract by copying the following declaration from one of the principal districts in Jamaica:

"*Resolved at a meeting of the freeholders and inhabitants of St. Thomas in the East;*

1. "That the coffee-planters are threatened with total ruin by the exclusion of their produce from the Continent of Europe, and by the introduction of the same article into Britain from St. Domingo and other places.

2. "That the sugar-planters are also on the verge of ruin from similar causes, and from the most oppressive duties that were ever known in any age or nation; amounting frequently to more than four times the net proceeds of their produce.

3. "That the idea of the duties falling on the consumer is delusive; for although when there is a scarcity at market, the prices are thereby enhanced to the consumer, yet when the market is glutted, they must entirely fall on the planter, and at all times must lessen his profit."

Art. 22. *The present ruinous Situation of the West India Islands* submitted to the People of the British Empire; with a few Remarks on the Imposition and Oppression under which the Merchants and Planters of those Islands have long suffered. By a Native of Jamaica. 8vo. pp. 42. 1s. 6d. Sherwood and Co.

It

It appears that this pamphlet is the production of a person whose feelings are keenly interested on the subject. The impolicy of the mother-country in enforcing monopoly, and in obliging the planter to send home his whole produce, whether there be a market for it or not, is strongly represented. By way of completing the disappointment of our colonists, the sale of our manufactured goods in Jamaica (or, as it is currently termed, the "dry-good business") has become of late years very unprofitable, in consequence chiefly of the injudicious extension of shipments of manufactures from Great Britain to Spanish America. While reasoning on these subjects, the writer has but too much cause to condemn the conduct of his countrymen at home: but a very different opinion must be expressed concerning the succeeding part of his arguments. In these he enters into a long and unnecessary declamation against the abolition of the slave-trade; a measure which, leaving for a moment humanity out of the question, it always seemed to us impolitic in the West India planters to oppose. Their sufferings arose from an excess in the growth of sugar, compared with the consumption of the home-market; and it was paying too high a compliment to the discernment of our ministers, or the liberality of our shipping-interest, to believe that any regard for the losses of the planter would lead to a departure from their favourite policy. With respect to the abject condition of the Africans in their own country, and the general practice of making slaves without reference to a sale of them to Europeans, no proof of tyranny on the part of others can be sufficient to justify us in a reprehensible participation. Even the fact that the negro, when fairly settled in the West Indies, is less uncomfortable than when at home, is no satisfactory argument against the abolition of the traffic. The manner of obtaining and transporting them is detestable; and it is an established rule in morals that we are not at liberty to commit a present trespass, for the chance of effecting ultimate good.

POLITICS.

Art. 23. *A Serious Call to the Electors of Great Britain*, on the approaching (late) Dissolution of Parliament; with brief Remarks on the Conduct of the present (late) House of Commons, on the most important Subjects which have come before them; with some Observations on their Privileges; on the Catholic Question; the Regency; Reform in Parliament; &c. &c. 8vo. pp. 64. 2s. 6d. Hatchard. 1812.

The readers of this pamphlet are left in no doubt with regard to the author's political tenets, since he is by no means one of those who think, with the followers of the peripatetic school, that excellence lies in a medium: indeed he delights in taking a very decided part on all questions. He makes a summary of the leading topics which engaged the attention of the last parliament, and finds himself in so happy a mood as to be pleased with all of them. He begins by discussing the commitment of John Gale Jones; goes on to that of Sir Francis Burdett; and, after having endeavoured to support, by law-authorities, the proceedings in each case, he passes, without much preface, to a very different subject — the Catholic Question. Here

he takes great pains to warn us against granting too much; assuring us that the Catholic spirit remains nearly the same as in former ages. Other topics are, the parliamentary discussions in the case of the Duke of York, those on the Walcheren expedition, and the long debates on the restrictions in the late Regency-bill. On these, as in the other points, all the decisions of the majority of the House receive the approbation of this accommodating writer. In the Walcheren business, however, we must admit that he has the conscience (p. 41.) to qualify in some measure his favourable testimony.—The last and most important subject in the pamphlet is the question of Parliamentary reform; and the writer's statements on this head are really amusing; since he is not only highly pleased with things as they are, but feels great terror at the idea of an independent House of Commons.—By way of finish to this singular production, he introduces the association lately formed, in the west end of the town, under the title of the *Hampden Club*. Of the gentlemen composing it, he says (p. 58.) just enough to shew his readers that he is disposed, at a fit season, to deal in censure as well as in panegyric; and he accounts it most ridiculous 'that thirty or forty private individuals should take on themselves the concerns of sixteen millions of persons.'—Enough, we believe, has been stated to explain the substance of this pamphlet; and its style contains nothing remarkable. While on the one hand it is neither obscure nor entangled, it is on the other too much stocked with repetition and common-place.

Art. 24. *Of England.* By M. Rubichon. 8vo. pp. 394. 7s. Booker. 1812.

We have already taken occasion (see our last Appendix, p. 533.) so express our sentiments of the French original of this work; and we now find little reason to make any favourable qualification of them. The present may be called a third edition; considerable alterations having been made in the second impression of the French copy, as well as in the translation. Still, however, the book is in a very crude state, and affords a striking example of the pernicious effect of a deficient attention to regularity in the outset. The reader who compares the present copy (p. 41.) with the former (p. 62.) will find a singular error, respecting the number of members of the House of Peers, transcribed literally from the one to the other. M. Rubichon is his own translator; and having deemed it unnecessary to apply for friendly correction to a native of this country, he falls into a variety of whimsical mistakes in language.

Art. 25. *A Refutation of M. M. de Montgaillard's Calumnies against British Policy;* and of his "Display of the Situation of Great Britain in the Year 1811." By Sir John Jervis White Jervis, Bart. 8vo. pp. 390. 9s. 6d. Boards. Stockdale. 1812.

The length at which we entered on a refutation of M. de Montgaillard's philippic against this country, in our Numbers for January and February last, would prevent us from making any extended report of a counter-publication, were the latter even a work of considerable merit; since enough has already been assigned to an examination of the assertions of this selfish and presumptuous Frenchman.

man. It happens, however, that the volume of Sir John Jervis possesses no attractions that are calculated to make us depart from our accustomed bounds. After having ascribed to it the praise of zeal for our country, we have no farther commendation to bestow on it. Indeed it is written in great haste, without any regard to method, and in a very loose and diffuse style. We are not advocates for stately diction in publications of this sort, but the present writer appears to run into the other extreme. Let the reader peruse, for example, the following sentences, which are introduced after the detection of the French author's errors:

'Thus, Montgaillard will readily perceive how he has slipped into the wrong box, and he may thank me (who am by no means friendly to him,) for opening his luminaries, and enabling him to get out of it neck and heels.—I would advise him to get a fresh set of brains.—Like a true British fox-hunter, I shall follow him through all his mazes, both in water and over dry land.'

We should not, however, be disposed to quarrel with this familiar phraseology, were the substance of the book correct: but so inaccurately is it drawn up, that Sir John, after having declared in the first page that a lengthened refutation of Montgaillard would be almost a waste of time, follows up the remark by a discussion of more than 370 pages, in answer to the writer who is thus characterized. The worthy Hibernian Baronet is a believer in the wonderful efficacy of our late Orders in Council. 'They,' he says, (p. 368.) completely blockade France, and will oblige *him* to crouch to us for those rare articles, now that *he* has not one solitary colony left.' To this, as a very common error, we are willing to extend indulgence: but what shall be said of the following? Speaking of the deficiency of our corn-crops, and of the means of remedying it, Sir John adds, (p. 53.) 'the birds commit great destruction on the ripening corn, and, if the people find that there is a deficiency, they will no doubt take sufficient pains to prevent the waste.' Whatever may be the quantum of corn thus destroyed, we apprehend that it would baffle all the skill of Sir John White Jervis, and his brother fox-hunters, to accomplish a remedy for it. One of the best parts of the book is the reasoning (p. 48.) on the rapid depreciation of money: but it is counterbalanced by strange errors in the passages immediately before and after it.

From a notice prefixed to this volume, it appears that Montgaillard, formerly a count and an emigrant, was the author of a royalist-work, published in Hamburgh in 1795, intitled, "*The Year* 1795, *or, Conjectures on the Result of the French Revolution.*" Among other effusions, this book contains the following: "O French nation, appease posterity! An eternity of tears would be an inadequate reparation for the fate which the virtuous Louis XVI. experienced at the hands of his people!" Such was the language of him who is now a vehement advocate for Bonaparte!

RELIGIOUS.

Art. 26. *The Christian Reader's Guide;* or a characteristic Catalogue of the most important modern English Publications on Theology,

Theology, and other branches of Knowledge therewith connected; exhibiting, on each Work, the Opinions of the best Authors, and the most respectable Reviews. To which is prefixed an Essay on Reading and the Choice of Books. 8vo. sewed. 5s. each Part. Williams and Son.

The compiler of this Reader's Guide has been a considerable theological reader, and many of his hints are unquestionably judicious: but we discover an under-plot which is not ingenuous, and to fair searchers after truth must be very disgusting. As far as this work can have any influence, it will confine the Christian to a *certain* line of reading, and exclude him from books which are inconsistent with the evangelical system, or which are interlarded with sentiments that are entirely anti-evangelical. This mode of promoting the interest of a sect by a sort of *index expurgatorius* may be very wily: but it discovers a kind of trepidation, or alarm, which is not very creditable to the cause on the side of which it is employed. Truth has no fears. The fair course which this writer ought to have pursued would have been to give a list of books on different sides of the controversy; or to have advised the reader, if peradventure such and such volumes of heterodox divinity should come in his way, to read with care the orthodox answers to them. This honest plan is not adopted: but a particular society is said to have published a work accommodated to the *errors* of their sect; and in this summary way the sect and all its errors are put in the black-hole. The mass of weak and silly Christians may be caught by this paltry expedient: but every man of spirit will revolt at a plan which is designed to confine his reading within the beaten track of a sect. What a slave must he be who dares not look in any book which is excluded from the list of his ghostly director?

Art. 27. *A Selection of Psalms, and several Hymns on particular Occasions,* adapted to the Service, and humbly offered for the Use of the Members of the Established Church. 12mo. 2s. Crosby and Co.

The *Old Version*, as that of Sternhold, Hopkins, and others, is called, has been *put on the shelf* by most congregations; and where the *New Version* by Tate and Brady is not substituted in its place, a selection of Psalms and Hymns suited to Christian worship has been adopted. Perhaps the last measure is to be preferred, because, as the editor of the present collection observes, 'all the Psalms of David are not calculated to be sung in Christian congregations.'—This little volume contains Hymns and Psalms on a great variety of religious and devotional subjects; the selection is sufficiently comprehensive; and the 'particular occasions' are Christmas-day, New Year's-day, Good Friday, Easter, Ascension, Whitsunday, Sacrament, Charity Sermon, Schools, Public Fast, Benefit Societies, Funerals.

They who use this Selection will be assisted in "singing praises with understanding." Dr. Watts's versions of many of the Psalms are of unrivalled beauty, and these the editor has, with much good taste, inserted.

Art.

MISCELLANEOUS.

Art. 28. *A Father's Bequest to his Son*, containing Rules for Conduct through Life. Intended as a Companion to Gregory's "Father's Legacy." 12mo. 4s. 6d. Boards. Chapple. 1811.

In this little production, the strictures on reading are excellent: but the course of study recommended to a son would be equally eligible for a daughter; and in the advice on 'Domestic Habits,' we trace an indulgence and deference for the fair sex which even lead us to suspect that the writer belongs to it. The work, however, displays rational sentiments and liberal principles, and may be perused with safety and advantage by every class of readers.

Art. 29. *Eastern Tales;* or Moral Allegories: illustrative of the Manners and Customs of Oriental Nations, and designed for the Instruction and Amusement of Youth. 12mo. 5s. Boards. Chapple. 1811.

So many eastern tales have been published since the Arabian Nights' Entertainments first appeared, that it seems to be a work of supererogation to spin out more: but the present stories are moral, and may possibly amuse young readers whose taste for oriental fictions has not been palled by repetition.

Art. 30. *Letters of Sympathy*, supposed to have been written by eminent Persons: a new Essay *on* Literature. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Allen and Co. 1812.

"*Reddere personæ scit convenientia cuique*" is no moderate praise, and applicable to very few writers. To express the dying tenderness of Stella for her strange husband; to record the supposed last words of Smollet to his wife, and of Count Palkull to his mistress previously to his execution; or those of Lady Raleigh to her husband;—all these are attempts in which none but an author of the greatest genius could succeed, and which the correct feeling of such an author would prevent him from making. Robert Burns to his wife, Jean Armour; Parnell to Pope; Otway to Lord Plymouth; Savage to his mother, the Countess of Macclesfield; the Earl of Strafford to Archbishop Laud; Lord Guilford Dudley to Lady Jane Gray, and the answer; Mary, Queen of Scots, to Bothwell; such are the other undertakings of this imitator, who professes great diffidence in his preface!—We have only to say that these letters are misdirected, and could never reach their destination; as Voltaire remarked on Rousseau's letter to Posterity. Since some of our readers, however, may wish for a specimen of these 'Letters of Sympathy,' as they are curiously intitled, we extract the beginning of the reply of Lady Jane Gray:

'My dear Husband and my Dudley,

'I have received thy letter. The sympathy of that letter must now remain, the last instance of thy tender and constant affection.

'You wish that we should meet before the final hour arrives; the hour that must soon dissolve the bridal union, and the nuptial tie.

'I pant for that meeting; but if we saw each other, would not despair rend our hearts in such a situation? since these knew little more than the youthful simplicity of nature.'

SINGLE

SINGLE SERMONS.

Art. 31. *The predominant Influence of Christian Principles in Life and Death:* preached at Lower Tooting, Surrey, April 19, 1812, on the sudden and much-lamented Death of the Rev. James Bowden, on the 6th of April, for many Years the Pastor of the Protestant Dissenting Society in that Village. By Robert Winter, D.D. 8vo. pp. 48. 1s. 6d. Maxwell. 1812.

Dr. Winter first comments on the various parts of his text, (Phil. i. 19, 20.) and then proceeds to exhibit a biographical sketch of 'good Mr. Bowden,' who was born at Warminster, in Wiltshire, Dec. 3, O. S. 1745, and died at Hammersmith, Monday, April 6, 1812, having on the preceding day been attacked with a strong paralytic affection in the pulpit, as he was preaching to a congregation in that hamlet. Nothing remarkable distinguished Mr. Bowden's life: but his piety and spirituality of mind are amply displayed in this eulogy. We never heard that the deceased had any brilliancy of eloquence or devotion: but Dr. W., who ought to know, and should not have asserted it if he had not been sure of the fact, says that 'Mr. B.'s sermons were good, and his prayers *pre-eminently* excellent.' It is added that, on the Sunday in which he was struck with death, 'he was very *importunate* in family devotion, and that he was observed by many of the congregation to be remarkably fervent and *heavenly-minded* in prayer.' Dr. W. deems it extraordinary that the summons to depart should have reached the deceased in the congregation, to the care of which his son-in-law had been invited; observing that 'it casts a *solemnity* over the introduction of his friend to his new charge,' which the preacher hopes 'will *retain a lively* and permanent impression on his mind.'

Art. 32. *Christian Liberty;* preached at St. Mary's, before his Royal Highness the Duke of Gloucester, (Chancellor of the University,) and the University of Cambridge, at the Installation, June 30, 1811. By Samuel Butler, D. D., late Fellow of St. John's College, and head Master of Shrewsbury School. 8vo. pp. 129. Longman and Co. 1811.

Christian liberty is a favourite theme with Protestants: but they are not agreed about the exact import and practical application of the term. Churches and sects claim the privilege of enjoying the *liberty wherewith Christ has made them free:* but they are often very reluctant to extend it to others. To ascertain the nature of Christian liberty, Dr. Butler follows the course which is most likely to insure him success: he adverts directly to the clear injunctions and to the uniform practice of our Saviour, and deduces from the whole this indisputable conclusion, 'that any attempt to clog and fetter the consciences of men by needless ordinances, or to enforce as matters of positive and indispensable obligation, those things which Christ has left indifferent, is directly at variance with the spirit of liberty to which we are called.' This is the true protestant principle; and we wish that the tolerance which it inculcates were generally carried into effect. It is owing to the want of this tolerance, that so much *theological hatred* has subsisted in the reformed churches; and that, while they declaim against the dogmatical and anti-scriptural practices of the Church of Rome, they fall into similar errors in their conduct

conduct towards each other. About creeds and forms, violent controversies are maintained; though, (as Dr. B. remarks,) in our Saviour's account of the last judgment, the great stress is laid, not on speculative belief, and on the *external* character of the worship which we pay to God, but on the exercise of those virtues which the commands of Christ have exalted into duties. The discourse throughout displays a liberal and Christian spirit. Dr. B. urges us, under the constant experience of our own imperfections, 'to make large allowances for those of our brethren, and to tolerate opinions which, however widely they may differ from our own, may yet be consistent with sincerity of intention and general sanctity of life.' In one part of the sermon, the preacher, adverting to our Saviour's intercourse with publicans and sinners, compares him to Socrates; in whose life he thinks 'that an *adumbration* of our Lord's conduct may be found:' but it must be remarked that, however desirous the Grecian sage might be to reclaim the morals of the Athenians, he did not on all occasions manifest that hatred to vice in his intercourse with sinners which Christ displayed, nor were his lessons so divinely pure.

A valuable body of notes is added to this sermon, in which Dr. B. expresses himself handsomely on the subject of Catholic Emancipation, and ventures, as we have done, to question the reality of the Gunpowder Plot. He also speaks his opinion respecting Methodists, and those preachers who arrogate to themselves the title of Evangelical Ministers.

Art. 33. *The Rights of Conscience asserted and defended, in Reference to the modern Interpretation of the Toleration Act:* delivered at Essex-street Chapel, Feb. 5, 1812, being the Day appointed for a General Fast. To which are annexed Notes and an Appendix, illustrative of the Toleration Act. By Thomas Belsham. 8vo. 1s. Johnson and Co.

It is impossible to find the Rights of Conscience more calmly, impartially, and satisfactorily stated than in this short discourse; and Mr. Belsham's happy manner of illustrating his subject must convince all sects without offending any. Fast-days being seasons in which preachers especially aim at effecting reformation, this divine employs his oratory to soften and diminish the spirit of bigotry and uncharitableness; and that man must be a bigot of the first order, on whom these pages make no impression. It is contended that 'the sacred and unalienable rights of conscience extend to the *adoption*, the *profession*, and the peaceable *promulgation* of religious principles;' and even they who object to the complexion of Mr. B.'s creed must admit that he has given a very fair view of the subject:

'Every rational and moral agent possesses the sacred and inalienable right of publicly professing the doctrine which he believes to be true, and of worshiping God in that form which conscience dictates to be his duty.

'If, for example, a man believes that there are three persons in the godhead, the Father, the Son, and the Holy Spirit, and that these three are One God, the same in substance, equal in power and glory; if he believes that the Father is Almighty, the Son is Almighty, and the Holy Ghost Almighty, and yet there are not three Almighties but one Almighty; and if he further believes that they who deny this

this mysterious doctrine shall, without doubt, perish everlastingly, he has a right publicly to profess this his belief: and if in correspondence with his avowed creed he addresses his devotions at one time to God the Father, at another time to God the Son, at another to God the Holy Ghost, and at another time to the holy blessed and glorious Trinity, three persons and one God, he obeys the dictate of his conscience, he performs what he judges to be his duty to his Maker, and no person upon earth can have any right to intrude into, to impede or molest him in his religious exercises. Another man may indeed think that his doctrine is erroneous, unscriptural, absurd, and even pernicious; that his worship is unauthorized and polytheistical; that it is subversive of the grand fundamental principle of all religion natural and revealed, the Unity, and unrivalled supremacy of God the Father, of whom, and through whom, and to whom are all things: But what is all this to the sincere and conscientious Trinitarian? He is to form his own judgment, he is to worship according to his own creed. And if that creed is erroneous and that worship unscriptural, it is to God, and not to man that he is accountable for it. Conscience, says a late bright luminary of the law, the distinguished advocate of religious liberty — "Conscience," says the late Lord Chief Justice Mansfield, "is not controulable by human laws, nor amenable to human tribunals. Persecution, or attempts to force conscience, will never produce conviction, and are only calculated to make men hypocrites or martyrs."

The whole of the sermon is in this mild and persuasive strain; a strain from which the truly philosophic searcher after truth will never depart. The Legislature has wisely allayed the apprehensions of the preacher on the score of the Toleration-Act.

CORRESPONDENCE.

By a farther communication from Dr. Gregory, we find that his feelings have been wounded by some expressions in our notice of his former letter, in our last Number: which we assure him we did not intend to produce that effect, nor did we mean that our readers should infer that his letter was an intemperate and virulent effusion. He is still desirous that the public should be in possession of the entire contents of that paper. We had no other objection to their being made acquainted with every line of it than that we could not afford room for it, and for a detailed reply; nor do we in the least desire to prevent them from judging fully between the Doctor and us, respecting both our account of his work and our observations on his letter. We now, therefore, accede to his request that the whole of that letter may be printed as an Advertisement on the cover of this Number of our Work; and there our readers are at full liberty to peruse it, and to form their own opinion on the case.

Col. Macdonald's letter has been transmitted to the author of the article to which it refers, but no answer to it has been received by the Editor. Indeed, the style of it is such that even the Colonel himself could scarcely expect us to attend to its contents.

☞ The APPENDIX to this volume of the Review will be published on the first of February, with the Number for January.

THE APPENDIX TO THE SIXTY-NINTH VOLUME OF THE MONTHLY REVIEW ENLARGED.

FOREIGN LITERATURE.

ART. I. *Essai sur l'Eloquence de la Chaire*, &c.; *i. e.* An Essay on the Eloquence of the Pulpit: with Panegyrics, Eulogies, &c. By his Eminence Cardinal MAURY, Archbishop of Montefiascone and Corneto, Member of the Imperial Institute, &c. A new and enlarged Edition. 8vo. 2 Vols. Paris. 1810. Imported by Payne.

TASTE does not supply the place of genius, but frequently consoles us for its absence. Indeed, the creations of genius itself are imperfect and almost abortive when taste refuses to put her finishing hand to the work, to graduate its forms, to soften its defects, and to give prominence to its beauties. —In the earlier periods of literature, mankind are content with being pleased, without knowing or inquiring into the cause of those agreeable sensations which are produced by the magic of language. In its decline, they become sensible of the change, and, in seeking to arrive at the point of its deterioration, they are compelled to go up to the fountain whence it originally flowed with purity; and though it be now dried up or troubled, they are delighted to dwell on its former clearness, and vainly hope that it is not quite exhausted. These researches are not without their benefit: since, although they cannot re-produce originality, they are useful in warning mediocrity from bad examples, and even in inspiring it with a zeal for imitating the

good which it must despair to equal. Among this class of books, the volumes now before us deserve a high and distinguished rank.

Some centuries previous to the great age of French eloquence, *Saint Bernard* and *Gerson* had done honour to their country by sermons which were not deficient in reasoning, in method, in taste, and even in that mildness which anticipated a more enlightened day. Succeeding writers caught from them, and transfused into their sermons, a large share of these estimable ingredients; and in borrowing the noble and majestic language of antient Rome, whose authors were their models, their compositions were respectable not less in manner than in doctrine. At this time, the language of the French was without form; and in leaving the Latin for their own, they were hurried into the vortex of a corrupted taste. *Maillard, Corénus, Vallayer,* "and a crowd of preachers who vied," says *Massillon,* "with the theatre in buffoonery, and with the schools in dryness, who associated the word of God with barbarous terms unintelligible to themselves, or with jests which should be unintelligible to others," had debased the eloquence of the pulpit by a low style, a coarse erudition, an indecent mythology, gross buffoonery, and by expressions or images not unfrequently obscene. The transition made by eloquence from her lowest depression to her highest flight was not the gradual operation of imperceptible improvement. It was the work of an instant, — it was the creation of *Bossuet.* 'During the course of my studies,' says the Cardinal MAURY, 'I have had the curiosity to read in the edition of the Council of Trent, published at Louvaine in 1567, all the sermons pronounced at the opening of each session in presence of this assembly, the most learned and renowned that has ever illustrated the annals of the church.' From the number, he selects that of the Bishop of Bitonto as incomparably the best. Let us hear this good bishop: — "Nature," he observes, "has given us two hands, two eyes, and two feet, with the intent that man may be the abridgment of a council, by making use at once of all his members, because one hand washes another, and one foot supports another." Twenty pages in the same style, taste, and spirit, might be cited from the same discourse. To judge from their manner, we should think that the interval between the Bishops of Bitonto and Meaux was equal to that which occurred between the expulsion of Tarquin and the reign of Augustus. The real interval does not reach a century: 'but these two epochs, so close to each other, are as distant as the grossest barbarism from the most refined taste.'— 'Thus Time, whom *Montaigne* called *the great judge of the past,* Time, who devours

every usurped reputation, adds daily new splendor to the areola of glory which surrounds that immortal writer.' The Protestants appear to have been to the French preachers what the sectarists of England are to those of the Established Church. Their sleepless vigilance required circumspection; their attacks demanded all the weapons of controversy to repulse; and it is possible that *Bossuet*, and his rivals in fame, owed much of their excellence to the necessity of putting forth their whole strength to ward off the danger that menaced the fabric of which they were the pillars.

"No man," says Cicero, "can be eloquent without a multitude who listen to him." Let us add that no man should address a multitude without being eloquent. It may be alleged that the divine ministry, firm in its cause, has no need of other advantages; that sound doctrine, clear proofs, and good reasoning, in whatever garb attired, are sufficient; that those combined advantages of style, manner, and delivery, which are termed oratory, are foreign from the pulpit; and that to be holy is to be eloquent. These requisites might intitle to respect, and even to celebrity, a treatise which was intended merely to be perused: though this is granting very much, since, even in reading, every person feels more attached to Truth itself for the graces which she sometimes condescends to borrow; and, according to *Boileau*,

"*Qui dit froid écrivain dit détestable auteur.*"

We will admit, however, rather for the purpose of meeting the lovers of homeliness half way than from conviction, that sound sense, argument, and knowlege of the subject, are sufficient for the page that is merely to be perused: but for the page which is written to be recited, not to a few persons assembled in a family-circle, but to a multitude collected to hear the word of eternal life or death pronounced by a public functionary, authoritative from his presumed acquaintance with the subject, and attracting all notice from the elevation of his tribunal and from the difference of his costume,—for such an address, experience will justify us in saying that something more is demanded. An individual may read and be edified by plain facts: a multitude requires to be moved: the doctrine in both cases is pre-supposed to be sound, but weapons of incalculably greater power are necessary to enforce it on the many.

"It is true," says Father *Guenard*, "that false ornament has ravaged almost every realm of literature: but here is a scourge yet more destructive—it is Reason herself; I mean that geometric reason which parches up, which burns, if I may be allowed the ex-

pression, all that it dares to touch. It renews at this day the tyranny of that false Atticism which of old calumniated the Roman orator, and which persecuted Eloquence by tearing from her every ornament, and leaving her a fleshless body, without colouring, without grace, and without life. A superstitious exactness, intent always on itself, which measures every step: an arrogant precision, which coldly utters truths, and permits no sentiment to escape from the soul, because sentiments are not reasons: the art of laying down principles, and deducing from them a long string of consequences equally clear and freezing: new and profound ideas which partake neither of feeling nor of life: which fatigue the hearer's attention, because, of themselves, they take no hold of the imagination; this is now termed oratory! Do we know that Eloquence is almost entirely in the heart and in the imagination; and that hence she derives her charms, her lightning even, and her thunder? Let us read the antients: we shall find in them paintings so lively and striking, that they seem to convey the very objects themselves into our mind; bold and vehement figures which wing the thoughts with fire; a tender expression of sentiment which pervades the whole discourse, as blood runs through the veins. Let us forbid Reason, then, from stepping beyond the sphere of the sciences, from carrying into the arts of taste her sadness, her natural austerity, her dry and barren style."

Having answered a prejudice, which is but too general in this country, against animation of style and delivery in the sacred orator, we will present our readers with the first notion of the art, or, as it is termed by the Cardinal, 'an image of the eloquence of the pulpit.'

'A sensible man perceives his friend engaged in some designs which are contrary to his interest or duty. He wishes to divert him from them, but fears to forfeit his confidence by too sudden an opposition; he therefore insinuates himself with gentleness, and does not begin by combating, but by discussing. His friend is inattentive; he asks only to be heard; he assumes the tone of pity; and he gradually strengthens his reasons by presenting the arguments of the evidence with the reserve of the doubt. His friend yet refuses to answer, and pretends even not to understand him. He then complains not so much of his obstinacy as of his silence. He meets and refutes every objection. Animated by the indulgent zeal of friendship, far from pretending to display his talents, he utters only the language of sentiment. When certain of exciting interest, he forbears from all reproach; he points out the precipice to the eyes of his friend; and he shews to him all its depth, that he may assail his imagination, the weakest but most lively of our faculties. By these means, he succeeds in shaking his friend's design: he humbles himself even to supplication, and gives free vent to his sighs and his complaints. All is now accomplished: the heart yields: truth triumphs: the friends are reconciled; and it is to the eloquence of persuasive tenderness that truth and virtue owe the honour of their victory. Christian orator! behold your first model in the art of preparing and graduating the triumphs of sacred eloquence. That compassionate man,

man, who must necessarily be himself affected for the purpose of convincing others, is yourself; that friend, whom it is necessary to move before you can influence him, is your auditory.' —

'Do you not perceive how you would weaken the all-powerful spring of your eloquence, if it forgot that its force was derived from the profound remembrances of conscience, and the imposing perspective of death? You are placed, then, intermediate between heaven and earth, to defend the rights of the Creator and the interests of his creatures. In this position, even the whole human race, much more your auditory, will present themselves to your view as one individual, as one collective being, who unites and represents them all with the most perfect resemblance.

'By this oratorical fiction, there exists to the speaker but one man in the multitude who surround him; and, with the exception of details which demand some variety to paint the passions, the conditions of life, and the difference of characters, he should address himself to one single auditor, one miserable and guilty man, whose wanderings, disasters, errors, pains, miseries, or vices, he deplores. The reasons, which are sufficiently persuasive to surmount individual resistance, are forcible enough to subdue the most numerous assembly. He accuses, he confounds the individual. He speaks to him at one time as a confident, at another as a mediator, at another as a judge. See with what address he unveils to him sentiments the most hidden, with what sagacity he reveals to him his most intimate thoughts, his most flattering and seductive excuses. The guilty man beholds himself pourtrayed to the life; a profound attention, terror, confusion, remorse, all announce that the orator has divined, in his solitary meditations, the secret of consciences. You will see, it is true, in the temple, thousands of auditors: but there will be only one thought, one single interest, one single sentiment — God and the sinner, or rather repentance and mercy.'

This is no doubt requiring much; the author is aware of it, and points out the only source whence so many excellences can be derived:

'Where are you to find that ideal and abstract man, that fictitious mediator, thus formed of so many elements, without danger of painting a chimerical being? Where can you find that phantom, that artificial image, in which all mankind may recognize themselves, although the image itself bear no one individual resemblance? — Where? In your own heart. Descend into it frequently, and search its every fold; there will you discover both the pretexts for those passions which you design to combat, and the origin of those frailties and contradictions which must be developped before they are cured. *Massillon* confessed openly that this was the book which principally instructed him. The most faithful painter of human nature, the eloquent and pious *Racine*, was honoured by the greatest compliment that a moralist can receive, when, to the exclamation, "My God, how strange a contest! I perceive two men within me," he heard his sovereign reply, "I well know those two men."'

These extracts have been made for the triple purpose of supporting our position that language to be spoken should partake of the rapture of inspiration, of submitting to our readers the first principles of the art, as considered by the Cardinal MAURY, and of affording a fair specimen of the Cardinal's manner, as far as we are enabled to do this through the feeble medium of translation. He insists more at large on the necessity of self-knowlege before we can become acquainted with others; and we could follow him with pleasure, if our limits admitted the discussion, through all his rules and directions, since each section appears to be worthy of serious attention. "It is a great and dangerous enterprize," says Quintilian, "to speak alone in a numerous assembly." In order to acquit ourselves with credit, we cannot be too studious in our remarks on those modes by which a real, an honourable, and a permanent success is obtained. A preacher may succeed rather by secret artifice than by genuine merit, in gaining the suffrages of tea-drinking old women; and, as these worthy admirers will be heard in their turn, he who has done so in our time has gone far in the road to a disgraceful celebrity: but their Reverences the charming Mr. A., the touching Mr. B., and the *unctuous* Mr. C., would do well to provide themselves with something more permanent than alternate preacherships in London chapels. Others before them have been the charming, the touching, and the unctuous of their day: but their day is gone by, because their merit, founded on a trick, has at length been discovered and valued at its true estimate. We recommend to the puny fashionables who at present fill the pews (we had almost said, the boxes) of A., B., C., and D. chapels;—who are so successful in drawing tears from Ladies E. and F., sighs from the fair Misses G. and H., and convulsions from old hobbling Lord J.; and at whose effusions the good and correct Mistresses K. and L., and the incorrect Mistresses M. and N., drivel with pure delight, while a few men and women of understanding shake their heads, and seek in books that religious light which these silly favourites have not to bestow;—we recommend them, earnestly do we repeat it, to peruse the sections of this work which treat on the manner of preparing and arranging discourses before they are written, and which exemplify their positions by citations that will endure for ever. 'What,' says the author, addressing himself to some of his countrymen who courted an usurped reputation—'What, do you appear like a suppliant who goes begging for suffrages, before those very men who should tremble at the sound of your menace, under the weight of heavenly anathemas, and conjure you to place yourself between them and the divine wrath?"

It

It is with extreme reluctance that, in passing over a country in which objects of beauty and of interest occur at every step, we are prevented by our other duties from resting more frequently to delineate, as far as our pencil will permit, some of the many wonders which strike us in the route. Not that England is unacquainted with the three great orators of her competitor in war and letters. They are known; they are *appreciated* by a few; they only remain unrivalled. Cardinal MAURY's favourite is *Bossuet*. It would be an useless expenditure of criticism to praise or blame authors who have attained to solid celebrity; it is not our duty to extract beauties from those works which are within the reach of all: but the following allegory from *Bossuet* is of such grandeur, force, and truth, that we insert it as a farther lesson to that class of men whom we have just lightly touched and passed:

"Human life is like a road of which the termination is a frightful precipice. We are warned of it at our first step: but the law is passed, and we must continue to advance. I would willingly retrace my steps; but Onward! onward! an invincible weight, an irresistible power, ever hurries us, and we are compelled to advance, without resting, towards the precipice. A thousand crosses, a thousand pains, trouble us on the road. Yet could I but avoid that frightful precipice! No, no; I am forced to proceed, to run; such is the rapidity of one year rolling after another. We are consoled, however, because from time to time we meet objects that divert us, limpid streams, and flowers that pass away. We are anxious to stop — Onward! onward! and yet we behold all that we have passed falling behind us, in fearful desolation, inevitable ruin. Still we comfort ourselves because we carry off some flowers, gathered as we pass, which we see wither between our hands from morning to evening, and some fruits which we lose while we taste them: enchantment! illusion all! drawn on for ever, we approach the frightful gulph; already all around begins to be disfigured; gardens are less blooming, flowers less brilliant, their colours less lively, the meadows less smiling, the waters less clear; all is tarnished, all is effaced. The shade of death presents itself. We begin to feel the approach of the fatal gulph: but it is decreed that we must still advance. One step more; already horror agitates the senses, the head swims, the eyes are bewildered. We must yet advance; most eagerly do we desire to return: but it is not possible; all is fallen, all has vanished."

Such was the imagination, and such was the eloquence, of *Bossuet*. We forbear to dwell on the two rival orators. Each country is the best appreciator of the comparative talents which honour it; and, if the Cardinal MAURY be the faithful organ through which his countrymen utter their opinions, the name of *Bossuet* is a synonym for the perfection of French eloquence.

Many excellent observations are here made on the choice of subjects. In particular, the orator is directed to avoid inter-

mediatory topics, which are attached to the gospel by threads too weak and subtile, or which may be found discussed in every treatise of morality; and all philosophical subjects, all those which savor rather of wit than of religion. Such discussions are more worthy of the porch than the pulpit, and might be promulgated by the cosmopolite preacher with equal propriety in the mosques of Mohammed or the pagodas of India. In one word, we are directed to avoid all those subjects which are deemed new and surprising, but which are, in reality, far-fetched and barren. No person is very anxious for the display of wit who is not convinced of his deficiency in real talent. 'Choose preferably subjects that are strictly religious, and vast; which place you in the midst of the consciences of your auditory, and which, by surrounding them with the horizon of eternity, embrace all the grand interests of man.'

The great axioms of the Cardinal MAURY are founded on observations taken from the three consummate masters. These eloquent men are well known. We therefore pass them over, to introduce to the notice of our readers the name of *Bridaine*; of whom, and of whose oratory, the following is a short sketch:

'*Bridaine*, incontestably the first French missionary of the eighteenth century, was born with a popular eloquence, full of rapture, of imagery, and of action. No person possessed in an equal degree the rare talent of laying hold of an assembled multitude; and he realized all the wonders which history relates of antient declamation. He made himself heard as easily by ten thousand people in the open air, as if he had spoken beneath the roof of the most sonorous temple. In all that he said, were discovered a natural eloquence, which burst from the sources of genius; sudden elevations, whose rude vigor discovered more talent and more ideas than the proud indigence of imitation; a character naturally oratorical; bold metaphors; thoughts that were sudden, new, and striking: a simple elocution, but noble in its very popularity; a consummate art in exciting and supporting the attention of the people, who were never tired with hearing him; moral fables and apologues which were interesting, and at times sublime; the marvellous secret of piously diverting, or of exciting tears, at pleasure; the accent of indulgence mixed with agonizing bursts of a mournful indignation; all the traits of a rich imagination; original and unknown beauties that have escaped the rules of rhetoricians; exquisite sallies; and, at times, entire passages laboured with a care which tempered his imagination, and in which the regularity of his composition sensibly took off from his ordinary fire. Persons yet live who remember to have heard him repeat the exordium of the first sermon which he preached in the church of Saint Sulpice, at Paris, in 1751. The most noble assemblage of the capital was collected, from curiosity, to hear him. On reaching the pulpit, he perceived

in

in the assembly several bishops, a great number of persons in court-dresses, and an innumerable crowd of ecclesiastics; and this spectacle, so far from intimidating, inspired the following exordium, which, in its kind, will not perhaps appear unworthy of *Bossuet* or of *Demosthenes*.

"At the sight of an auditory so new to me, it might seem, my brethren, that I should not dare to open my mouth, unless to implore your indulgence in favour of a poor missionary, unprovided with all the talents that you require, when you are addressed on the subject of your salvation. I am guided, however, on this day by a sentiment far different; and if I feel humbled, beware of believing that I stoop to the miserable disquietude of vanity, as if I had been accustomed to preach myself! God forbid that a minister of heaven should think at any time that he has need of an excuse with you! for, whoever ye are, ye are all but as myself, in the judgment of God, sinners. It is then solely in the presence of your God and of my God, that I feel myself compelled, at this moment, to strike my bosom with reproach. To this present hour I have published the just decrees of God in temples covered with thatch. I have preached the rigors of penitence to the unfortunate, of whom the greater number were in want of bread. I have announced to the good inhabitants of the country the most appalling truths of my religion! Unhappy man! what have I done! I have saddened the poor, the best friends of my God. I have carried terror and grief into those simple and faithful minds which I ought to have pitied and consoled! It is here, where my eyes fall but on the great, on the rich, on the oppressors of suffering humanity, or on audacious and hardened sinners, — ah! here only is it, in the midst of so many scandals, that I should have sounded the divine word in all the force of its thunder, and have placed with me in this pulpit, on one side Death who menaces, on the other the great God who shall pass sentence on you all. I already hold, at this moment, your sentence in my hand. Tremble then before me, ye proud and disdainful men who hear me! The ungrateful abuse of so much divine grace, the necessity of salvation, the certainty of death, the uncertainty of that hour so fearful for you, final impenitence, the last judgment, the small number of the elect, hell, and above all eternity! eternity! these are the subjects on which I come to converse with you, and which, undoubtedly, I ought to have reserved for you alone. Oh! what need have I of your suffrages, which would perhaps condemn me without saving you? God is going to move you, while his unworthy minister shall address you; for I have gained a long experience of his mercies. It is he himself, he alone, who in a few instants shall shake your consciences to their utmost depth. Struck with immediate fear, penetrated with horror for your past iniquities, you will come to throw yourselves into the arms of my charity, shedding tears of compunction and repentance; and with the aid of remorse, you will find me eloquent enough." —

'Who feels not,' pursues the Cardinal MAURY, 'in reading and after having read such an exordium, how far the eloquence of soul rises above the modern *bel esprit*? In excusing himself, if I may be allowed the expression, for having preached on hell in villages, *Bri-*

daine

daine apostolically regretted that he had been too menacing among the poor and good inhabitants of the country; and he put himself, by this courageous zeal, in his true place. He indignantly took that ascendancy over his imposing audience, which he had to fear for himself; he exercised, from the commencement, all the authority which belonged to his ministry, and thus prepared all hearts for the terrible truths which he proposed to announce.'

One extract more from this Shakspeare of the pulpit, as he is termed by MAURY, is necessary to make him fully known; and to make known also the quarry whence a certain English enthusiast has hewn out a rude and tremendous mass which has long passed for his own.

'A recent tradition has preserved to us a memorial of the dreadful consternation which pervaded an assembly, when, blending, according to custom, popular and striking comparisons with sublime conceptions, he exclaimed,

"And on what do you rely, my brethren, in believing your last day to be so distant? Is it on your youth? Yes, you answer: I have attained but to my twentieth, to my thirtieth year. Ah! you utterly deceive yourselves. You have not attained to twenty or thirty years. It is death who has already twenty years, thirty years, in advance on you; thirty years of grace which God has been pleased to grant you in permitting you to live; for which you are his debtor, and which have drawn you by so much the nearer to the term at which death will end you. Beware! Eternity already marks on your brow the fatal instant at which it is going to commence. Ah! know you what is eternity? It is a clock, whose pendulum says and repeats incessantly these two words alone, in the silence of the tombs, *Ever, never! Ever, never! Ever, never!* During these fearful revolutions, a condemned spirit exclaims, "*What is the hour?*" and the voice of another wretch answers him, "*Eternity!*"'

Few sentences are more happy than those at the beginning of this extract: but the conclusion is of an audacity which might succeed with *Bridaine*, but which we would not advise any other to attempt. It has, however, done wonders for the preacher in question, who certainly possesses no one requisite but boldness to give utterance to an idea so extraordinary. It is one of those darings of which the first effect is to leave the mind suspended between its claims to sublimity or to nonsense. The adventitious advantages of a voice of which the volume was unrivalled, the contrivances of an imposing manner, a severe and earnest brow, might determine a few auditors in favour of its sublimity; and the first who ventures to decide for himself decides in general for the multitude:—but, in allowing it to be nonsense, we must add that it is a flight of extravagance to which our English enthusiast could never hope to soar; and although we would not defraud him of

of his indisputable claim to vulgarism and rhapsody in all their departments, yet the large and wholesale manner of the passage above quoted is so unlike the pitiful and retail follies which he is in the habit of serving out for the improvement of his flock, that this passage would have remained unappropriated, but for the intervention of the book before us.

The reputation acquired by the Jesuit *Neuville* was owing exclusively to his insight into the taste and prejudice of the times in which he lived. A thorough intimacy with every littleness of his age procured for him a temporary comparison with *Massillon*.

It is a pleasure, in perusing the pages of Cardinal MAURY, to observe his candid and impartial respect for the Protestant *Saurin*. Several pages of criticism are devoted to that preacher's works; and he is considered by the Cardinal as the head of the second class of French preachers, and indisputably the first of any orators beyond the pale of his language. From Holland, the theatre of *Saurin*'s eloquence, the author comes to consider the eloquence of England; and those who are unprepared to hear such compliments as the following,—'the soporific preachers of England, totally devoid of imagination,'—'the whole collection of the best English sermons would be beneath the collection of *Saurin* alone,'—'all their aggregate merit would not be worth the worst sermon of *Bourdaloue* or *Massillon*,'—'the distance between English and French pulpit-eloquence is that which subsists between the first rude attempts at an art and its perfection,' &c.—those, we say, who cannot patiently endure these unmerited sarcasms had better pass from page 86. to page 137. of the second volume. Passion is usually incorrect; and in the hurry of his abuse levelled at Tillotson, Clarke, Barrow, and Blair, the Cardinal has utterly forgotten Sherlock and Secker: of whom, if it cannot be said with truth that they have written divine things, it may surely be said that they have written human things divinely. They fell perhaps rather too decidedly into morality: they were possibly not possessed of an art strictly oratorical: like English sermons in general, their compositions read better than they preach: but, in saying this, we have urged the only defects that can be alleged by any impartial person who has read *in English* (for this is necessary,) the works of these two writers, whose very names do not present themselves to the present French critic. We do not urge their pretensions beyond their real desert. Considered merely as men of eloquence, they can neither be admitted among the first nor perhaps among the second rank of French preachers: their style is essentially different: they have neither the rapture nor the variety;

variety; but, if the preachers were different, the dissimilarity in their auditory is not less remarkable. With a genius which on the whole does not yield to their southern neighbours the English have not the quickness, nor the *finesse*, nor the inclination to enthusiasm, which mark the natives of warmer climates; and although we would willingly usher into our churches a manner more nearly resembling the inspiration of the moment, — a delivery more animated, more energetic, and more accentuated, — yet should the colouring be lowered by many shades beneath that which in France would be agreeable and correct. Many of the smaller traits perceptible to French *finesse* would fall unfelt on English phlegm. *Bossuet* had received from Madame *Henriette* of England, whom he attended at her dying hour, a ring in token of the consolation which he imparted by his encouragement, his prayers, and even by his tears; and in his funeral oration on that unhappy Princess he touches slightly and with delicacy on the interesting trifle: "She had the art of giving value to her presents, at one time by affecting words, at another by her very silence; and that art of gracefully conferring them, which she has so well practised during her life, has followed her, *I know it*, even to the arms of death." — 'Three syllables,' continues the Cardinal MAURY, 'enforced by a heart-rending cry in the midst of a calm recital, *I know it*, sufficed for *Bossuet* to relate with equal dignity and circumspection the history of the ring, already generally known, which was seen to glitter on his finger. This was the triumph of oratorical propriety. In short, these three words affected the audience with tenderness and enthusiasm: an audience which proved itself worthy of them, by repeating them frequently with an unanimous transport, in the first explosion of its enchantment.' We believe, however, that the "*Je le scais*" of *Bossuet* would have produced no such wonders in the church of Saint James, nor even in the chapel of St. George at Windsor.

That the reader may have an idea of the effect intended and produced by a fine sermon at Paris, contrasted with a good essay in London, we submit to him the sequel of the equivocal but tremendous close of *Bridaine's* "Eternity:"

'The thundering voice of *Bridaine* added on these occasions a new energy to his eloquence; and the auditory, overwhelmed by the impetuosity of his action and the magnitude of his images, was at that instant in consternation before him. The profound silence which reigned in the assembly, more especially when he preached, according to his custom, at the fall of night, was interrupted from time to time by long and dismal sighs, which breathed at the same time from all the extremities of the temple, whose dome at length re-echoed with inar-

inarticulate murmurs and deep groans. Those accents of a dull and stifled grief expanded in the distance in the midst of the agitations of remorse, which quickly manifested its action on the conscience by sudden and repeated stripes, with which each auditor assailed his breast.'

Moreover, in England the sermon is read: while in France the education of a priest, commenced in general from early boyhood, is directed to form and to strengthen the memory; and thus, although each sermon is prepared and written, it falls with the force of unpremeditated inspiration from the treasures of a memory which is for ever faithful to its deposit. This last discipline becomes indispensable in an orator who addresses himself to an audience so subtile and impassioned; and a strong memory is one of the many primary qualifications required from a French orator. The Bishop of *Clermont*, *Massillon*, fatigued (as he said) by learning every day his lesson, like a school-boy, conceived such a disgust for the pulpit, that he retired from it during the last twenty-five years of his life. *Bourdaloue* was unhappy in this faculty. 'His action,' says the Cardinal, 'was commanding and noble: he had a voice full and touching, and all the dignity of a prophet: but his memory pre-occupied and troubled him so habitually, that, to avoid all that could derange his ideas, he imposed on himself the rule of constantly closing his eyes; and he is thus represented in all his portraits. He was perhaps in part indebted to this habit of refusing himself a sight of his audience, for the majestic carriage of his head, which usually accompanies short sight. With all this precaution, however, he sometimes afflicted his audience by the sad necessity of recurring to his written paper, which he always laid humbly at his side on the seat of his pulpit.'

Of such consequence is memory considered among the preachers of an animated school, that, when *Massillon* was asked which of his sermons he preferred, he answered, "that which I can repeat the best;" and Father *Renaud* was so convinced of the necessity of memory, of action, of manner, of the peculiar charm 'of his velvet voice,' and of the magic which his utterance gave to his composition, that, when he was requested to print his sermons, he replied, "with all my heart, if the preacher can be printed with them." We are not therefore to be surprized that a critic who is accustomed to exact such eloquence of writing, of memory, of voice, and of gesture, should deal hardly with a school of preachers possessing so very few points of resemblance. With such views carried into the temple, Tillotson is scholastic, Blair is vapid, and Young is a sleep-walking sermonist.

If,

If, however, the orators on the banks of the Thames offend by a cold, drowsy and inanimate style, those on the borders of the Tyber are yet more grievously offensive by warmth and vivacity carried to a theatrical licence. Germany is mentioned merely for its unvaried sterility in pulpit eloquence; and Spain has only produced one author worthy of passing the Pyrenées, in the person of Saint Thomas of Villanova, an Augustine monk, and preacher in ordinary to Charles the Fifth. His sermons are composed in Latin. From this mine, *Massillon* did not disdain to appropriate some treasures: but sufficient yet remains to tempt the curiosity of those who would take the pains to explore it. Still Italy, with all her extravagance, appears to the Cardinal MAURY, following at a great distance after France, to be the soil most fertile in sacred orators; and, of the Italian school, the Jesuit *Segneri* is allowed the first rank. The opening of his sermon on the Passion is cited as an apostrophe full of rapture and of pomp, addressed to sinners, with an ironical congratulation on the Deicide committed by their hands. We subjoin it rather as a specimen of the style of *Segneri*, and of the taste of MAURY, than of what we feel or approve. "Be joyful, sinners, on this deadly day! for yours is the victory. Sing then the song of triumph: rejoice, be proud, for your design has been crowned with success. The deed is done: are you satisfied? What would you more?" This anticipation of *Racine* had been well delayed until the time at which Athalie appeared before the royal visitors at St. Cyr. It may be relished in Italy, but is somewhat too glowing for the climate of England. Indeed, the following expressions will shew at how great a distance the pride of Italy is placed from the best orators of France: 'The discourses of *Segneri* would meet with some success even in our language, if they were translated with taste and intelligence; or, in other words, if they were abridged, and reduced to what is really excellent.' Again, 'The principal fault of his compositions consists in the confusion and oddity of his ideas;'—'to this fault add the childish credulity of his narrations, the false reasoning of his proofs, the disproportion of his pictures, his continual affectation of scientific words, and the monstrous abuse of his comparisons.' Again, 'The master-piece of his moderate talent,' &c. Again, 'The justice which I feel pleasure in rendering to him compels me, notwithstanding, to own that he would only be classed in France, at the very utmost, among secondary preachers; and that, in granting him this rank, it would be necessary to admit but a very small number of his discourses.'

The

The ingenious and sensible but indolent auditory of *Segneri* hung with delight on the music of his periods, and the charm of his diction. The ear, that great inlet to pleasure or disgust with the nation whom he addressed, sought and found in his elocution all that could rivet and enchant it; and in flattering that proud organ, he did all that was required. Harmony, which has become a family-secret hereditary in the Italians, extends its influence equally to the theatre and to the cathedral. Conceits, *finesse*, wit, poetical and exaggerated descriptions, are there preferred to pictures of the soul. Their sacred worship is a kind of spiritual concert; and a brilliant or musical sentence from the preacher is frequently greeted by a murmur of admiration and encouragement.

To call the attention of a people thus enslaved by one overruling sense, to public worship, Philip de Neri, the modern apostle of Rome, instituted oratorios, which have been performed since his time (the sixteenth century) in the church in which he officiated. The historical subject of these oratorios is taken from the Bible, as the history of Deborah, of Esther, of Judith, of Saul, of David, and of Absalom. The very agony of Christ itself is represented on Good Friday. Action is added to utterance; and such is the vivacity of the scene, that the eye is almost as much occupied as the ear. It is accompanied by duos, airs, grand chorusses, and a full orchestra. The sermon is a kind of intermedium of declamatory prose, which serves rather to afford rest to the musician than *unction* or instruction to the sinner.

The Italians speak with pride of this harmonized eloquence; and they justly challenge the world to produce any system of ethics equal in *immediate* effect to their concerts of morality. Their praise does not extend to the whole discourse: but their memory recalls with delight certain prominent passages in their most admired sermons. They excel in description. Thus *Granelli*'s passage of the Red Sea, his picture of the universal deluge, his relation of the waters changed into blood, (one of the plagues that visited Pharaoh's land,) and a highly-finished account of the creation of the world by the Cordelier *Belli*, are among the happiest examples of Italian eloquence. Indeed, from the very nature of an operatic form of worship, subjects rich in allegory or in poetry would most generally be applauded.

This extravagance is not the only reproach to be urged against the Italian pulpit. The Jesuit *Tornielli*, with indisputable talents, besides falling too frequently into figures of allegory and poetry, concentrates the strength of his genius and of his subject on the first division of his discourse, and, like the other preachers

preachers of his country, winds up the peroration with jaded powers and an extinguished imagination. The discourses of *Casini*, besides their deficiency in Christian doctrine, and in that touching strain which is termed *unction*, are disgraced by a vein of the most biting satire and sarcasm. The texts of Scripture are not only cited, but altered, and new-seasoned with inappropriate salt, and pressed into a strange and foreign service. The celebrated Cardinal himself condemned in the maturity of his talents the tribute of admiration which he had paid in his younger days to the bad taste of affected language, of conceits, of antithesis, of emphasis, and of false wit, which disfigured the Italian genius in his early life; and his old age was manfully employed in collecting and destroying the printed sermons which were the glory of his youth.

It is remarkable that the seventeenth century, which immortalized the literature of the French, should have been the period of decline and of bad taste with their southern neighbours. The introduction of this corrupted style is attributed to *Marini*, the too-popular author of Adonis. So great and so baleful was the success of this conceited but able writer, and so contagious were the applauses bestowed on his manner, that all Italy, deserting its antient masters, went in quest of exaggerated metaphors, false glitter, apostrophes, personification, the connection of dissimilar and grotesque ideas, points, comparisons brought from hopeless distances, and derived from mythology, natural philosophy, and astronomy. Hence it is that, to condemn a writer without appeal, the Italians simply use the comprehensive sentence, "*Ha del sei-centesimo*," "he smells strongly of the year sixteen hundred." This proscription indicates an author infected by the bad taste which reigned in Italy from the year 1600 to the end of the seventeenth century:—but we are happy to observe that the errors introduced by this age, so deadly to Italian literature, have been rectified by the prevailing good taste of the succeeding century; which has recurred to the models of prose and poesy bequeathed to it by the happy genius of those older authors who fixed and adorned the Tuscan language. The favourable and the unfavourable change were each the work of an individual; and the maturer judgment of *Casini* has thrown lasting discredit on the vicious and enervating strains of the poet of Adonis.

Although Cardinal MAURY refuses to acknowlege any degree of rivalry on the part of any Italian preacher with the purer models of France, he gives the palm to the Roman bar over that of any European nation. 'The Roman advocates, (he says,) 'to whom we cannot deny a well-merited precedency above all the advocates in Europe, by a striking contradiction, do not

plead extempore, but write all their pleadings in Latin. We distinguish usually in this list, in every generation, besides many respectable lawyers, two or three celebrated orators; who display, in the art of writing, all the eloquence of reasoning without the alloy of negligence, or the finery of bad taste. These Coryphæi of written pleadings rise indisputably above the preachers, and form a phænomenon peculiar to the bar of modern Rome. A far more powerful stimulant impels the first talents of the nation to this career, which, besides being in itself more lucrative, habitually leads the unmarried who distinguish themselves to the dignity of Cardinal; whereas the pulpit furnishes but one solitary example of such elevation, in the person of the Cardinal *Casini*, during the last century. They suppose in Italy that a man skilled in legal science, and endowed with an imposing manner, is thus better fitted for public employments; which require, according to them, a rare union of logic, of learning, and of application. Thus reasoned the court of Rome; and that of London is but too much inclined to fall into the same error; — to mistake the provoking impotence of a quibble, the mean advantage of a distorted assertion, the wretched talent of giving in the senate the answer of a Jesuit for that of a statesman, the art of causing trouble and wasting words, the miserable delays, the demurs, the confined and paltry ideas, the wiles and artifices practised in putting a specious outside on a bad cause, for that simple, comprehensive, and searching view of things which daringly aims at the truth, and, from acquaintance with the truth, is enabled to afford a remedy to an empire trembling on the verge of dissolution.

To close the remarks on the Italian Church. The pulpits, or rather the tribunes of Italy, partake of the character of the service. The liberty of moving in them, of changing place and attitude, of retiring or advancing, or of making several steps in a sideway direction, gives rather a military or dramatic than a devout air to the declaimer. It is disgraceful to himself, and yet more to his auditory, who prostitute their applauses on these antic grimaces. Some of these preachers do not scruple to expose themselves in the streets on a portable stage: their gesture, air, and manner are exclusively theatrical; and their declamation, formed to amuse, advances no claims to instruct. In a recent book of travels, they have received the nick-name of "Orators in full wind;" or, in plainer English, "flying preachers."

We remember to have read an anecdote of an orator of this description, which we repeat for the benefit of those to whom it may be new. A holy man was mounted, as usual, on

his stage, and for some time commanded the ears and attention of the multitude; when unhappily a puppit-shew was heard to send forth its inviting notes from the other side of the street. For a while, the crowd was divided;—new gesticulations were exhibited on the part of the preacher;—new vociferations were issued on that of Punch; and many were the good things said on either side: but worldly pleasantry at length gained the ascendancy over spiritual pleasantry. Declamation was useless. Change of attitude—the cap taken off, the cap put on, the cap held out—all was in vain. At length, the itinerant pastor, extending a crucifix to the Punch-smitten multitude, exclaimed, "*Venite qui—ecce il vero Policinello,*"—"Come hither—here is the true Punch;"—and this appeal was successful.

'It must be confessed,' says Cardinal MAURY, 'that, among the orators to be found within the walls of Italian churches, are many whose action is full of nature, of interest, and are formed at once to attach the spectator and serve as a model to the preacher. In general, they are distinguished by an awakening manner of speaking, and the exhaustless prodigies of a memory which nothing can disconcert. With this aid, they preach six times during each week in Lent, which number is farther increased for some time after Palm Sunday to three times daily. Italy is besides possessed of numerous good preachers in the moderate style; and, in particular, of legions of missionaries who are eminently successful in their apostolic ministry: or, in other words, who bring about restitutions, reconciliations, and conversions of celebrity.'

After a journey made so evidently against his will to the north and to the south, in quest of British and Italian eloquence, the good Cardinal returns home, with the remark which is not unusual among those who travel, that home is the better place. 'The more we hear or read foreign preachers, (he says,) the more are we convinced of the pre-eminence of our French orators.'

It will be seen from the preceding observations on this celebrated work, that we are inclined to grant the author that claim which he urges for his countrymen to the first rank in sacred eloquence: but it must be observed that the concession is made strictly to eloquence,—to the power of bearing away the human heart at will by the address and vehemence with which a finished orator knows how to assault it. Let it not be imagined that the warmth, for which we contend, is derived from an effervescence of ideas which mistakes emphasis for oratory,—the vapors of a heated imagination for the flame of genius,—words that pretend to more than the sense which they represent for thoughts of the heart,—oddity and whim for originality,

—intoxication for enthusiasm,—fictitious transport for sublime emotion, or the raving delirium of advocates, "who sell their tears," for the feelings of nature. The French pulpit, we repeat, is rich in real, solid, and permanent merit. Learning, closeness, energy, precision, perspicuity, tenderness, *unction*, and edification, are the characteristic virtues of its great masters. They lived coeval with genius the most successful in every department: in an age when every production of the human intellect was jealously compared with some rival production of established celebrity, before its value was decided: in an age which did not sell its suffrages to poetry boldly glorying in its dissonance and barbarism, nor to antiquated and retrograde language, nor to their opposites, sickliness and sensitiveness, nor to *mannerism* of any kind. The language of that age was "one and indivisible." In France, it was the French language, strengthened, enriched, felt, and written, by authors of every province. It was neither the lake-language nor that of the mountain, nor of the hamlet, nor of the city. This confusion of tongues remained for our unhappy Babel. As yet, the frequent quarto *was not*; and when it came, it was ponderous with the weight of thought rather than of paper. The books were little, but the men were great.

Every sermon, during the reign of the *Bossuets*, the *Bourdaloues*, and the *Massillons*, became the novelty of the day, the subject of all conversation, and of a paragraph in every letter which the post conveyed from Paris to the provinces. "Ah, *Bourdaloue!* what divine truths you have this day told us respecting death:" writes Mad. *de Sevigné* to her daughter: "all the world were at the sermon, and the sermon was worth all the world;" and again, "I go to the sermons of the *Mascarons* and the *Bourdaloues*, they surpass each other by turns." Of the latter, Louis XIV. observed that "he preferred hearing the same sermon of *Bourdaloue* frequently repeated, to the new discourses of any other orator." This merit, however, does not preclude us from the liberty of passing a censure on some defects which are common indeed to them with the dignitaries, and those who wish to become the dignitaries, of every church. We mean the extraordinary discovery of super-human virtues in Princes and in potentates. The circumstance which enhanced the doctrine of the great men who have raised the French pulpit beyond that of their neighbours was the exemplary tenor of their lives. France has seen a *Fenelon*. She has seen also a Saint *Vincent de Paul*, at one time, a slave in Tunis; at another, passing his life in voluntary troubles and dangers for the service of the poor and the captive; at another, raising the Foundling Hospital at Paris from the funds of his persua-

sion; at another, making journies through the provinces, which were traced by the consolatory vestiges of peasants clothed, fed, or enlightened; at another, liberating a galley-slave at the expence of his own freedom, in order that, in this new trial, he might convert by his doctrine and example the most reprobate and disorderly of men. Death was his first and only resting place. His life was a tissue of good works, and he lived to the age of eighty-five. One of the missionaries, on the eve of his death, observing him in a state of drowsiness that was unnatural to him, asked him the reason of that extraordinary inclination to sleep? He answered, with a smile, "It is the brother who is come to await the arrival of the sister;" an affecting remembrance of situation, which recalled to his mind, already perfectly resigned, that fine expression of Virgil, "*consanguineus lethi sopor.*" Never, says the author, has man more fully pardoned nature the necessity of dying.

The preachers of the great age were good as well as eloquent. With the exception of the one ecclesiastical vice, they were *eminently* good: but, since it has been customary at stated times to introduce subjects merely human into the sphere of sacred things; since kings have condescended to be pleased with hearing themselves transformed into Solomons and Davids; since every nation from Abyssinia to Siberia, from Italy to Greenland, has become *the* chosen nation, and its petty governor *the* man visibly raised up for the furtherance of its glory; since every sect is the only true religion, and every other the whore of Babylon; since the victory of a day is fought over again in the pulpit by men in peaceful stole; since praises and thanks, and reasonings and hallelujahs, on the sensible partiality of the Almighty for the conquerors, are offered up at the very moment when a hasty and troubled courier is on the point of arriving to announce that the success has been followed by a disaster; — since these things have been added to the gospel, we must not be surprized that the most consummate probity and talents have fallen sacrifices to a fashion, necessary to be worn by him who is not born to a benefice, who cannot purchase one, and who feels that a curacy in Wales or in Auvergne is disproportioned to his ability and inconsistent with his comfort.

Each country has its own way of doing the same thing. Cardinal MAURY imputes to *Massillon*'s "*petit Carême*" the introduction of subjects purely moral, and the consequent degradation of French sacred eloquence. We have our mode of complimenting. Sometimes a *sacred* author will discover with us qualities super-human in a prime minister; sometimes, in a dedication to a bishop, he will be in ecstacies at the splendid and premature attainments of the said bishop's son; at another

other time, he will be horror-struck, with his Grace of * * *, *no matter where*, at the prospect which may reasonably be entertained that the peasantry may, by education, be enabled in a few years to understand the service, which at present is a language almost as dead to them as before it was translated from the Latin; or at another, he will sing the Lamentations of Jeremiah at the bare thought of raising the Catholics to the rank of human beings, and will shudder from the fraternal embrace like those who were compelled to endure the punishment of Mezentius:

> " *Mortua quinetiam jungebat corpora vivis*
> *Complexu horrendo.*" — — —

This is our way: now for that of *Massillon:*

" Your manners," said he in his address to the court, " lend to licentiousness an air of grandeur, and of *good taste;* God has endowed you, at your birth, with more *taste* for good things. You have received from nature those fortunate propensities which are communicated with the blood; passions more gentle, manners more cultivated, a delicacy of conduct nearer allied to virtue, that dignity which curbs the sallies of the disposition, that humanity which makes it more sensible to the impressions of grace."

Again, in another discourse, pronounced at the consecration of the colours belonging to the regiment of *Catinat*, he tells the military, " it is true that we ought not to expect from you that timid and tender piety, nor all the attention and fervour, which retired persons, free from all engagement with the world, apply only to the affairs of the Lord: but that uprightness of soul, that noble respect for your God, that solid foundation of faith and of religion, that exactness of *good taste*, displayed in the essential duties of Christianity, that unalterable probity so dear to the esteem of the people," &c. &c. &c. Even *Fenelon* had not the heart to refuse a compliment to the idol on the throne. On occasion of the embassy from Siam to Louis XIV., he puts into the mouth of their Siamese posterity the following sentence: " Our ancestors ran from one end of the universe to the other, to see the wisdom, the glory, and the piety, which shone forth in that mortal man." *Bossuet* doubts whether a prophecy of Daniel applies to Alexander or to *Condé*. Princes without half the pretensions of the great *Condé* have been ushered on the stage by the voice of prophecy in all Christian countries; and we have no doubt that the prophecy applied to the Grecian and French heroes has been clearly brought to indicate the installation of the late Stadtholder of Holland. Established custom will not permit the ministers of religion to announce the word in presence of the world's great masters, without burning some few grains of incense to

their glory. To what sanctuary can monarchs fly from adulation, if it follows them, in the disguise of Christianity, to the very Temple of Truth!!

The age of French eloquence demanded all its wonders to curb the licentiousness of a court of which the leader was a model of luxury in all its refinements. The pulpit was powerful, but it prevented not the horrors inflicted on the Palatinate; it prevented not the structures of Versailles, Trianon, Clugny, and Marly, at the expence of a nation's tears; it prevented not the exhaustion of the finances in vain pageants and sanguinary wars; it prevented not the diversion of the river D'Eure from its bed, to supply water for a palace which was the monument of bad taste; and it prevented not the devotion of an army of French youth, with their officers, to this unwholesome labour, which daily thinned their numbers by death, or by a pestilence which poisoned the existence that it did not take away. Even the GOOD TASTE for morality, so inherent in the noble, did not restrain M. *de Sassac* from packing cards, cheating his royal master at play, and ruining entire families by the same unfair practices; it restrained not *Berivilliers* from tempering a slow poison to the constitution of her father, from watching his gradual decay, from regulating his decline to the grave; it protected not *Louvois* nor Madame *Henriette* of England from dying of internal and suspicious agonies; and it prevented not royal and noble adulteries, the prostitutions of *La Vallière* and *Montespan*, the torment of forsaken husbands, the disgrace of honourable sons and daughters, the fury of vice grown grey and exhausted, intrigue, violence, and mysterious death. Such were its negative effects. For its positive consequences, it produced a compound of artifice and prudery in Mad. *de Maintenon*; it produced in Louis a King who, after having brought his country to the brink of the precipice by his own extravagant ambition, soothed his declining days by listening to preachers who relieved his conscience from the burthen, by calling the universal ruin a just chastisement inflicted by Heaven on a guilty people; and it produced individual examples of retirement from the world, and of devout seclusions, which are harmless because they are inoperative.

Having closed the *Essay on Eloquence*, which has made the name of MAURY so celebrated on the Continent, we forbear to discuss the eulogies that fill up the second volume. They are, in general terms, good illustrations of the preceding rules. Our design was to present the English reader with a clear view of sacred eloquence in a mighty and literary empire; and this, to the best of our power, we have performed.

ART.

ART. II. *Tableau de la Mer Baltique*, &c.; *i. e.* A Description of the Baltic Sea, viewed in its physical, geographical, historical, and commercial Relations; with a Map, and Details of the general State of Trade, of the principal Harbours, and of the local Monies, Weights, and Measures. By J. P. CATTEAU-CALLEVILLE, Author of the Statistical Account of Denmark, and of a Journey through Germany and Sweden *. 8vo. 2 Vols. pp. 730. Paris. 1812. Imported by De Boffe. Price 1l. 8s.

A RESIDENCE of some length in the north of Europe, and a familiarity with languages seldom understood by Frenchmen, have enabled M. CATTEAU to prosecute with advantage his researches into the geography of the north, on a scale more comprehensive than that of his former work. He considers the Baltic as second only to the Mediterranean in the important effects which internal navigation is calculated to produce on the improvement of mankind. Inland seas, like these, though regarded in a ruder age as insuperable barriers to intercourse, become, as society advances, the most effectual channels for facilitating the progress of civilization. To what other cause are we to ascribe the lead taken by Egypt, Phœnicia, Greece, and Italy, over their less fortunate neighbours in the interior of Africa and Europe? In the Baltic, the beneficial effects of navigation were long impeded by the counteracting influence of an ungenial climate and penurious soil; yet, notwithstanding these material drawbacks, how greatly superior in knowlege and in the enjoyment of comfort are the subjects of Denmark and Sweden, to the inhabitants of the inland provinces of Poland, or of the fertile districts of southern Russia?

M. CATTEAU has taken considerable pains in the arrangement of his materials, and divides his treatise into the following parts:

I. Topography of the Baltic. — The Cattegat; the Belts; the Sound; the south-west Part of the Baltic, containing the Danish Islands; the Coast of Pomerania; the Coasts of Prussia, Courland, and Livonia; the Coast of Sweden; the Gulphs of Bothnia and Finland.

II. Phænomena of the Baltic. — The Ebb and Flow of the Tide; the occasional Rise of the Water; its Temperature and Degree of Saltness; the Extent of the Ice in Winter.

III. Productions along the Shores of the Baltic. — The natural History of the Birds, and that of the Fish and amphibious Animals found in the Baltic.

IV. Islands in the Baltic; their Geography and History.

V. Rivers flowing into the Baltic, and the inland Intercourse to which they lead, with Poland, Prussia, Russia, Sweden

* See Rev. Vol. lxv. N. S. *Appendix*, p. 527.

and Denmark. The inland Navigation by Canals is discussed under this head.

VI. History of the Navigation and Trade of the Baltic.—The Expeditions of the Normans; the Establishment of Christianity; the Constitution of the Hanseatic League; and, in general, the History of the Baltic Trade to the end of the fifteenth Century.

VII. Navigation and Commerce of the Baltic during the 16th, 17th, and 18th Centuries; Dissolution of the Hanseatic League, and progressive Extension of the Navigation of the Countries bordering on the Baltic.

VIII. Principal Ports in the Baltic; Petersburgh, Koningsberg, Riga, Dantzic, Lubeck, Rostock, Memel, Stockholm, Copenhagen, Gottenburgh, &c.

From this comprehensive enumeration of the contents of the work, we shall proceed to a notice of those parts which possess superior interest, either from the merit of the descriptions or from the recent occurrence of political events. The stoppage of the passage of the Sound, in consequence of our hostility with Denmark, has given additional importance to the entrance into the Baltic by the streights called the Belts; and the author affords, in a short compass, a sufficiently distinct account of these channels:

'*The Belts.*—The entrance to the Little Belt is commanded by a fortress called Fredericia, built on a large promontory. At this point, the width of the Little Belt does not exceed a mile, so that the passage is completely commanded by the cannon of the fortress: but, after having passed this streight, the water expands in width to the extent of eight or ten miles. To cross from Jutland to the islands on the way to Copenhagen at the wide part of the Little Belt would save a circuit of twenty miles: but the narrow passage near Fredericia is now preferred on account of its superior regularity and security. The circuit has also its advantages with regard to the land-journey, as it leads through the town of Christiansfeldt, a place of considerable extent and great industry. It is of comparatively recent erection, having been built within these thirty years by a colony of Herenhutters or Moravian Brethren, a tranquil and assiduous race. The streets are placed at right angles, and planted with trees; most of the houses have gardens. Colding is a place of some trade, situated on the banks of a river, and commanned by a castle which served as a residence in former ages to several kings of Denmark.

'The shores of the Little Belt are seldom steep or rugged. With the exception of a few heights on the frontiers of Jutland, the beach is formed by gentle slopes: but several sand-banks occur in this streight, and the current from the Baltic to the Cattegat sets in with great rapidity. The depth of the streight may be said to vary from four fathoms to twenty and twenty-seven. In some places, the inlets to the westward go so deep into the main land, that it would

not

not be difficult to open a navigable communication across the peninsula with the North Sea.

'The Great Belt is a passage of much more importance. We have seen, particularly in late years, ships of the line and large fleets of merchantmen sail up and down the Baltic in this direction. The depth of water in the Great Belt varies, as in the other, from five to above twenty fathoms. Its shores likewise are seldom bold or lofty, and abound with bays and inlets which answer the purpose of harbours or anchorages. Its greatest width is about twenty miles, and the narrowest part is sufficiently extensive to permit the passage of fleets of merchantmen without injury from artillery on shore. The chief danger in the navigation arises from the sand-banks and the number of small islands. The passage-boats cross between Nyborg, in the island of Funen, and Corsoer in the island of Zealand, a distance of fifteen miles. During summer, the passage is performed with ease in the course of three or four hours: but in winter the case is very different. In the middle of the passage lies the small island of Sprogoe, inhabited by a few peasants. When a fair wind and a clear sky give assurance of safety, this little island is passed unheeded: but, when a rising tempest obstructs the progress of the vessel, or threatens to drive down from the Baltic masses of floating ice, the island of Sprogoe becomes the point on which all eyes are fixed. The vessel takes refuge on this hospitable shore; and the passengers, who are sometimes detained for weeks, find accommodations in an inn established by the Danish government. When the masses of ice extend over a great portion of the Belt, the mail and passengers are conveyed partly on sledges, partly in small boats.'

The ebb and flow of tides are most perceptible on the shores of the ocean, where the influence of the sun and of the moon is not obstructed by local impediments. In narrow seas, or in seas like the Baltic and the Mediterranean, (which, though wide in themselves, are connected with the ocean by narrow streights,) the ebb and flow of the tides are scarcely visible. So slight are they in the Mediterranean, that the antients never became properly aware of them till they passed the Streights of Gibraltar; and they imagined, on seeing the water leave the shore, that the gods were about to withdraw their protection from them. In the Cattegat, the tides in many parts are feeble and irregular; in the Sound and the Belts, this is still more the case; and, throughout the upper part of the Baltic, the alternation, if it exists, is imperceptible. Not that this sea is without its fluctuations from other causes. After the lapse of certain intervals, the waters of the Baltic are found to swell in such a manner as to rise three or four feet above their ordinary level; and these extraordinary risings occur in all seasons, but particularly in autumn, when the atmosphere is obscured by clouds, and loaded with humidity. When they take place in winter, they have the effect of lifting up the icy surface of the sea

along

along the coast, of giving it a convex shape, and often of making it burst asunder. These swoln waters regain their level sometimes at the expiration of a few days; and, at other times, not for several weeks. They cause great agitation in the streights and gulfs; and it not unfrequently happens that they produce an inundation throughout the adjoining lands, which gives a salt taste to the fresh-water-lakes that communicate with the sea: in the Mælar, the great lake near Stockholm, this taste is so strong as to render the water unfit for domestic purposes.

Several causes have been assigned for this remarkable phænomenon. Some persons have attributed it to the winds, which, by impelling the waters from the middle of the sea, augment their height in the gulfs and along the shores: but this explanation is neither compatible with the perpetual tendency of water to a level, nor is it conformable to experience, the rise of the Baltic generally preceding a tempest, and disappearing before a change to calm weather. It would be equally fruitless to seek for a solution in the supposed influx of water from the ocean in consequence of westerly winds; since five days of continued influx would not produce a rising of two feet; a change which we often see effected in the Baltic in the space of twenty-four hours:

'The most probable cause,' says M. CATTEAU, 'is to be sought in the state of the atmosphere. M. *Schulten*, in a memoir delivered to the Academy of Sciences of Stockholm, has remarked the striking correspondence between the state of the barometer and the swelling of the water. He found that the barometer regularly fell shortly before the rise of the waters, and that it as constantly rose a little time before their fall. He inferred that the cause was to be sought in the unequal pressure of the atmosphere on different parts of this inland-sea. As the barometer varies in the north of Europe from twenty-four inches to twenty-six and a half, the difference between these extreme points will be found to correspond to a difference of three feet or three feet and a half in the elevation of water. If to this circumstance we add local allowances for the swelling of rivers, and the effect of westerly winds, we shall, says M. *Schulten*, be able to account for the inequality of the rise in different parts of the shore of the Baltic; and if farther observations are found to confirm these, the conclusions resulting from them will explain similar phænomena in other quarters. The Caspian is known to rise and fall perceptibly, and similar variations have been remarked in the Lake of Geneva; variations ascribed by *Saussure* to the same cause as by *Schulten*. Let us hope that a farther progress in such inquiries will lead to discoveries of great utility, and enable us to anticipate many of those changes of weather which at present elude our sagacity. The fishermen in the Baltic and the Cattegat have acquired, from the observation of the rising of the waters, the habit of predicting the approach

approach of rain and storms with surprising accuracy; a knowlege which proves extremely useful to them in their maritime occupations.

'In summer, during serene weather, the waters of the Baltic, like those of a lake, appear of a beautiful azure. This colour is tinted by the reflection of the sun, and by the images of islands, capes, and promontories. At the entrance of the Archipelago forming the approach to Stockholm, is a remarkable range of lofty rocks; and the fishermen declare that at particular times, during fine weather, they observe at a distance another range of rocks of still greater height. These, with their characteristic superstition, they consider as a miraculous appearance produced by Gunilla, a sea goddess; and they give the distant rocks the name of "Gunilla's Ears." Pontoppidan, who in his account of Norway has described the great sea monster called the Kraken, having been told of this mysterious appearance of distant rocks, insisted that the objects perceived by the fishermen could be nothing but parts of the enormous mass of a Kraken, rendered visible by his efforts to raise himself from the depth of the waters: but a Swedish engineer, who was commissioned to make a survey of the coast, has had the cruelty to overthrow both the goddess and the monster, and to pronounce the distant rocks to be nothing more than the reflection of the real rocks in the water. A similar course of reasoning would, no doubt, suffice to account for the aerial appearances of castles, flocks, and forests, which are perceptible near Reggio, in the streight between Calabria and Sicily; and which are known to the Italians by the imposing name of *Fata Morgana*.'

On comparing the waters of the northern seas with those of a warmer latitude, we find in the former a considerably less proportion of salt. The Baltic has a still smaller share of saline ingredients than the ocean in the same latitude; and, by a chemical analysis, it has been found that the proportion of them in this inland-sea scarcely exceeds the half of their proportion in the water of the German ocean. In certain places, where the influx of river-water is great, the saline taste is still farther diminished; and it has been found by experiments made in the Sound that the deep water is not so fresh as that of the surface. Sea-bathing is consequently less efficacious in the Baltic than in the ocean, and the water of the former is sensibly colder even in summer; with the exception, however, of the shallows, where the power of the sun is such as to create a marked difference from the temperature of the neighbouring depths.

On investigating another curious topic, the effects of frost on the waters of the Baltic, we find the reports of former ages tinctured, as usual, with a disposition to exaggeration. It is said that, in the year 1333, the ice on the Baltic was so solid and extensive that journeys were performed on it from the city of Lubeck to Poland and Prussia, a distance of several hundred miles;

miles; and it is asserted that inns were established at certain points along this extraordinary route. Similar congelations are reported to have taken place in the years 1399, 1423, 1429, and 1459. Our suspicion of exaggeration in these reports is founded partly on the quality of the water, which is here much less fresh than in the Gulph of Bothnia; and partly on the inferior power of cold over the southern part of the Baltic in our own time. From records of more recent date, and greater authenticity, we find that, in the dreadful winter of 1709, the surface of ice along the coast of Prussia extended as far as the eye could reach: but we hear little of travelling or trafficking, and still less of inns along this singular track. At the present time, masses of ice generally occur from December to March throughout the harbours, bays, and streights of the Baltic. In the Gulphs of Finland and Bothnia, exposed as they are to an additional degree of cold, and receiving perpetually a large influx of fresh water in all directions, the frost is both more extensive and of longer duration. Here, and particularly in the upper part of the Gulph of Bothnia, the congelation first shews itself by forming masses in shoal-water along the beach. Detached by tempestuous weather, these masses are carried into deeper water, and are driven about until a continuance of cold, and the progress of the season, have the effect of uniting them together in immense bodies.

'The uneven surface of a frozen track conveys to the eye of the spectator the appearance of waves arrested in their course. These masses often extend beyond the Gulphs of Bothnia and Finland, and are forced to Stockholm on the west, and to the islands of Dagoe and Oesel on the east. Around Aland, and the smaller islands connecting Sweden with Finland, the ice remains firm during several months; and the passage in winter from island to island takes place regularly on sledges. The path frequently winds among blocks of ice, of the height of fifteen or sixteen feet, which lie extended like the ruins of an edifice, or the fragments of a mountain. The danger in such passages arises from snow-storms, which cover from observation the stakes driven into the ice at different places for the purpose of pointing out the way: yet, awful as is the scene, the traveller is frequently diverted from the idea of danger, and led to indulge his imagination with the surrounding beauties. When a calm succeeds a storm, and the rays of the sun pierce through the mists, various colours become visible, and revive the recollection of fairy wonders. The snow appears like a carpet studded with pearls and rubies; the distant blocks of ice shine like enchanted palaces; and, towards the boundary of the horizon, the sky is resplendent with purple clouds.'

In the southern part of the Baltic, the ice, though less extensive, floats about in such quantities as greatly to impede navigation.

gation. It is not unusual to pass in a sledge or carriage from the coast of Sweden to the neighbouring island of Oeland. The island of Gothland lies more towards the centre of the Baltic; and, though the intermediate space is not passable as a solid surface, the masses of ice, during a severe season, are accumulated in such a manner as to obstruct the communication with the main land for many weeks. Even the Sound, rapid as is its current, is not unfrequently blocked up by ice, which renders it impassable during several days.

It happened in the year 1657 that the King of Denmark was induced to declare war suddenly against Charles X. of Sweden, who was then at the head of an army in Poland, at a distance of many hundred miles. Charles, with the characteristic activity of the house of Vasa, traversed the north of Germany, passed Holstein and Jutland, and made his appearance on the shores of the Little Belt with an army of 20,000 men. It was now the end of January (1658), and the frost had been uncommonly severe. The streight presented an icy plain, and Charles assembled a nocturnal council of his Generals, to hear their opinion on the practicability of carrying over the army. All were averse to it, with the exception of the celebrated *Dalberg*, who exclaimed, "The enterprise is a bold one, but it will succeed: I will be answerable for it with my head." After having ascertained the solidity of the ice, the order was given to march, and the army advanced in several columns, with horses, cannon, and baggage, headed by the King and *Dalberg*. Detachments of Danish troops endeavoured to oppose the passage, and the King is said to have been struck by fragments of ice raised from the adjoining surface by cannon-balls: but resistance was unavailing: the Swedes reached the island of Funen, and, having crossed it, saw in like manner the Great Belt congealed in a solid body. Here, however, the greater length of the passage prevented Charles from crossing directly over; he therefore made a circuit to the eastward by the islands, and traversed the streight where it is only ten or twelve miles wide. On arriving in the island of Zealand, he bent his march to Copenhagen; and the King of Denmark, alarmed by the boldness of the enterprise, hastened to make a cession of several provinces, in order to secure himself from being struck out of the list of sovereigns. A similar visitation had nearly happened, so lately as four years ago, to the capital of Sweden. In the unfortunate campaign of 1808, Sweden had lost Finland; and in the early part of 1809, several Russian regiments threatened to pass over from Aland on the ice. It was sufficiently solid for the conveyance of the heaviest carriages; and Stockholm was saved from invasion only by

the Revolution which drove her infatuated monarch from his throne.

In the south of the Baltic, the melting of the ice takes place in April: but, in the Gulphs of Bothnia and Finland, it is seldom completed till the end of May. When at last these masses are dissolved, the atmosphere continues cold for a considerable time; and if the winds are northerly, the season is very late throughout the north of Sweden, Finland, and even in Livonia.

We shall now turn our attention from physical appearances, to the history of the navigation of the Baltic. The changes which took place in the beginning of the sixteenth century, after the discoveries in the east and west, were not long in extending their influence to the north of Europe; since from these discoveries, as well as by the knowlege diffused by the art of printing, a spirit of enterprise became general, and men ceased to be satisfied with the rude attainments of their ancestors. The state of things which had called for the protecting influence of the Hanseatic league no longer existed; the sovereigns in each country having become sensible how greatly it was their interest to afford security to the operations of commerce. These sovereigns felt, likewise, that the preferences granted to foreign merchants were injurious to the industry of their own subjects; and even Gustavus Vasa, indebted as he was to the town of Lubeck for assistance in restoring the independence of Sweden, and punctual as he was in the repayment of their pecuniary advances, stedfastly refused to renew the privileges granted by his predecessors to the merchants of the Hanse towns in their commerce with Sweden. In the middle of the sixteenth century, also, the Russian government first invited a number of German artisans to settle within its territory, and to afford instruction to its illiterate population. It deserves to be recorded as a pitiful instance of trading jealousy, that the merchants of Lubeck, actuated by a wish to retain the exclusive supply of Russia with manufactures, exerted themselves to the utmost to prevent the passage of the emigrant Germans; and the latter, finding their egress by the ports of the Baltic impracticable, were obliged to take the fatiguing route of Poland, or to sail for Archangel by the dreary passage round the north Cape.

The peace of Westphalia, which settled the political situation of the German empire after a warfare of thirty years, terminated in a degree the consequence of the Hanse towns in their associated capacity. It was in vain that the magistrates of Lubeck, still desirous of political ascendancy, convoked meetings of the members of the league; no resolution of impor-

importance was adopted with a view to the advantage of the incorporation. The different towns had discovered that the best plan was to follow each its own objects in its own way; and, from the middle of the sixteenth century, we perceive the adoption of measures of concert confined to the neighbouring cities of Hamburgh, Lubeck, and Bremen, with an occasional concurrence on the part of Dantzic. By this time, the Dutch had begun to take a lead in the commercial affairs of the North. The prosecution of distant fisheries had familiarized them with the climate and navigation of northern latitudes; and their acquired capital supplied a most convenient cement of connection with the poor countries along the shores of the Baltic. The industry of Prussia, Denmark, and Sweden, was in a great measure set at work by advances in the shape of loan from the Dutch; and so long have these continued, that not twenty years have elapsed since an Amsterdam-house was known to have funds invested in working mines in Finland and Sweden.

As early as the sixteenth century, a considerable exchange of diplomatic and commercial intercourse took place between Russia and England. India was in these days the grand object of our government and our merchants; and the direct course to that country appeared to lie either along the northern shores of the Russian empire, or by a route through its inland provinces towards the Caspian and the dominions of Persia. Hence a sucsession of bold but unavailing efforts on the part of our seamen, to accomplish the former object. The town of Archangel was founded in 1584, and rendered a place of trade in connection with Moscow, Novogorod, and other cities. The Russian government had about this time obtained considerable successes over the Tartars, whose desolating irruptions had long proved a source of affliction to the inhabitants. The Czar Iwan II. was the Peter the Great of his age; and though the exercise of his power among his subjects was marked by frequent acts of violence and barbarism, yet, towards the strangers who settled in his territory, he appeared divested of his characteristic rudeness. — Our readers will recollect, in our Review of the first part of Dr. Clarke's Travels, a whimsical poetical report (Vol. lxvii. p. 417.) of the national qualities of the Russians. This was the composition of one of the members of an embassy deputed to Moscow by Queen Elizabeth; an embassy which had been preceded by one from that capital to London so early as the reign of Mary. On that occasion the Russian ambassador, having been forced by a tempest to come on shore in Scotland, proceeded to London by land. On approaching the capital, he was received with great

great distinction: a nobleman, accompanied by a suite of three hundred persons, came forth to compliment him on the part of the Queen; and a similar attention was soon afterward paid to him by the Lord Mayor and Aldermen in formal array. To complete the whole, Mary, and her husband Philip II., gave him a public audience at Westminster, and loaded him with presents both for himself and his master. Such was the consequence attached, even in those days, to a friendly understanding with Russia.

With regard to the Baltic, however, the influence of the Russians in that age was very limited. Though successful against the Tartars, they were too illiterate to combat European adversaries; and the Swedes having obtained great advantages over them, the peace of Stolbowa in 1617 excluded the Russians altogether from the Baltic. Denmark was at that time the chief maritime power of the North. The reign of Christian IV. was very long, and would have been memorable in history, had he not been overshadowed by his greater cotemporary, Gustavus Adolphus. Though not always successful in military enterprise, he was intitled to praise for his knowlege of nautical affairs. He established the school of navigation at Copenhagen, and was in the habit of making personal visits to the dock-yards: he dispatched expeditions to Iceland, Lapland, and Greenland; and he established a factory in India at the town of Tranquebar, which was the origin of the Danish East-India Company. Christian was less fortunate in his attempts to augment the rate of the Sound-dues. This tax is of very old standing, and was grounded originally on the plea of the necessity of a fund to defray the expence of watch-houses and lights. As long as the Hanse towns monopolized the navigation of the Baltic, little difficulty occurred in regulating the rate of the dues: but, when the Danes had built the fort of Cronberg, and the Hanseatic league had lost its political ascendancy, attempts were made to augment very considerably the amount of the tax. It was raised to 2¼ per cent. on the value of the cargo; and, by way of enforcing payments in full, Christian assumed a right of taking over the cargoes whenever he chose, on paying the valuation fixed by the ship-master. This exaction provoked hostilities on the part of Sweden and Holland; and, after an unsuccessful resistance, Christian found it necessary to exempt the Swedes altogether from the toll, and to consent to favourable stipulations in behalf of the Dutch.

Such was the condition of maritime affairs in the Baltic till the beginning of the eighteenth century, and the introduction of the changes planned by Peter the Great. Notwithstanding his

his despotic power, the Czar found it a work of time and difficulty to make his new capital a place of commerce. Archangel was the chief resort of navigators, and Peter was obliged to mix threats with promises before the mercantile portion of his subjects, few as they were, could be induced to form establishments on the banks of the Neva. The first foreign merchantman that arrived at Petersburgh was a large Dutch vessel with a valuable cargo; and the Czar, in a transport of delight, granted to the captain and his heirs an exemption from custom-house dues during all the time that this vessel should continue to navigate the Baltic. Such an advantage was too substantial to be relinquished; and the ship was repaired with so much care as to continue in the trade till within these thirty years. In the year 1718, above one hundred Dutch merchantmen arrived at Petersburgh. Other nations gradually followed the example; and the conquest of Livonia leading to the formation of inland-canals, the Neva became the great channel for the northern commerce of Russia. Still, however, this empire presents the singularity of a state possessing a *military* without a *mercantile* marine. Petersburgh and the other Russian ports in the Baltic do not, all taken together, own two hundred vessels of sufficient size to navigate that sea, much less the ocean. The acquisition of Finland, important in various respects, will form some addition to this slender stock of trading vessels. Finland has several extensive docks, and a proportion of seamen capable of undertaking a difficult navigation: but the traffic of the Baltic, it is evident, will remain for ages in other hands. Ship owners of Hamburgh, Lubeck, and Dantzic, are in the habit of procuring the municipal rights of a Russian subject; and of enjoying, in consequence, the abatement of the three-eighths of importation-duties that is awarded by the law on entries made for the account of natives of the empire. The foreign commerce of the Baltic, by which we mean that which passes the Sound, will be conducted in a state of peace chiefly by the Danes, Swedes, Dutch, and, above all, by our own countrymen; whose vessels, even in war, take the lead greatly of those of other powers. Moreover, the British have long enjoyed distinguished attention and substantial privileges at Petersburgh; advantages which were interrupted only for a season by the madness of Paul in 1800, and the late unfortunate rupture in the end of 1807.

On looking back to the history of the Baltic-commerce, we find that it has increased very greatly during the last half century. Reckoning the passage up and down separately, the number of ships entered on the books of the Sound has been as follows:

In the year 1752,	about	6000
1770,	-	7,736
1783,	-	11,166
1796,	-	12,113
1800,	-	9,048
1802,	-	12,164.

On examining the proportion occupied by the flags of the nations principally trading in the Baltic, we find the following in 1790, a year of peace:

Swedes	-	430
Prussians	-	698
Danes	-	1559
Dutch	-	2009
English	-	3788.

In the year 1796, the proportion of Dutch shipping is to be considered as blended with the neutral flags. We have then these numbers:

Prussians	-	1773
Danes	-	2157
Swedes	-	2505
English	-	4455

We conclude our report of M. CATTEAU's book by a few observations on its merit as a composition. He remarks, truly enough, that he is among the first Frenchmen who have attempted the geography and statistics of the north of Europe; and we grant that his work, without being complete on the score of selection and condensation, is much superior in both respects to most of the late French publications which we have seen. His allusions to history are frequent, and bespeak a mind familiar with the subject which it has undertaken. He has often occasion to mention our countrymen in a political and commercial capacity; sometimes, too, in a literary character; and while he does not fail to animadvert on our national ambition in the former points, and on the inaccuracy which too frequently marks the hasty productions of our press, he preserves, on the whole, a greater share of moderation than might have been expected after the long hostility of our respective governments. In point of style, we meet with no attempts at an elevation unsuited to the plain character of a didactic treatise: no affected display of a knowlege of foreign languages; no assumptions of a consequential tone, from the circumstance of having personally resided in the countries described. The preface, indeed, adverts to the utility of the book in a strain somewhat different from that of modest reserve: but nothing is advanced which is not justified by the manner of executing the work. Among other recommendations, it is right to mention that the map of the Baltic and its shores

shores seems to be one of the best that we have seen. On the whole, therefore, M. CATTEAU has given to the public a production which, if not very entertaining, is of considerable use; and he might have had the satisfaction of avoiding any mistake of consequence, had he not reasoned too confidently on the duration of the ascendancy acquired by his imperial master. *Bonaparte* must needs be introduced under the magnificent title of '*Napoleon le Grand*;' and the forcible incorporation of Lubeck and Hamburgh with the French empire, by this '*vaste et puissant genie*,' is recorded with as much gravity as if it were likely to last for ages.

ART. III. *Raymond*, &c. *i. e.* Raymond, by LOUIS AIME MARTIN; to which are added several Fragments, extracted from picturesque Views and Beauties of Nature, an inedited Work of the same Author. 8vo. pp. 340. Paris. 1812. Imported by De Boffe. Price 8s. sewed.

M. MARTIN, who is a sentimental *reviewer* of nature, has acquired some literary reputation among his countrymen by his annotations on *Fenelon*'s fine treatise on the Existence of Deity, and by his Letters to Sophia on Natural Philosophy, Chemistry, and Natural History. The continuous portion of the present publication, a narrative which occupies little more than one half of the volume, is grounded on the recital of a true story in German: but the denouement belongs exclusively to the French writer, and the whole forms an episode in his manuscript work on the Picturesque Views and Beauties of Nature.

The person who relates the tale had, in his early days, roamed in vague and pensive melancholy on the banks of the Durance, recalling to his warm fancy the gallant and literary contentions of the Troubadours. Allured, one evening, by the romantic aspect of a valley on the sea-shore, he resolved to explore its recesses; when he descried, in one of its windings, a rustic habitation, whither he directed his steps, to solicit hospitality. As he approached the threshold, he perceived an old blind man seated on the turf, whose visage was deeply marked with scars and characterized by thoughtfulness. This venerable figure had scarcely welcomed him to his simple hut, when a woman came running to the spot, and announced, in accents of violent emotion, that her son, Charles, was certainly on the point of leaving home:

"Be comforted," replied the old man, after a moment's serious pause, "this evening our son will be restored to us. Think not that he can behold your tears without being deeply affected by them. In the meantime, forget your grief for a moment: here is a stranger

whom Heaven has sent to us; and, when you admit him under your roof, reflect that he may have a mother who anxiously watches for his return." These touching words, this aged personage, the very picture of serenity and mildness, by the side of this afflicted mother, awakened that remorse which I fed in my bosom. When I thought of the mother whom I had deserted, I drooped my head, and remained in deep silence. "Go, my dear," continued the good old man, "go, make ready our repast, under the arbour, at the well—there I wish to converse with Charles, and open his heart to the sentiments of filial duty. Your company," added he, as he turned to me, "will not be superfluous. If I mistake not the sound of your voice, you are young, which is nearly equivalent to saying that you are good. The recollections of old age furnish instruction and experience to your period of life, and the recital of my sufferings may, one day, aid you in bearing with your misfortunes."

Old *Raymond* is then introduced as unfolding the history of his adventures. His father had passed his days in the humble walks of virtuous privacy, contented with the possession of a small and sequestered farm at the extremity of the valley. The only cottage in the neighbourhood was occupied by a young widow and her daughter, *Camilla*. As the latter and *Raymond* had grown up, from infancy, in habits of the most intimate association, they became, in the fulness of time, enamoured of each other. Among the youths who occasionally resorted to the valley, was *Albert*; who, though sedate, considerate, and gentle, was the beloved friend of the more lively and impetuous *Raymond*. To the charms of innocent endearment, soon succeeded the painful emotions of jealousy and rivalship. *Raymond*, in his seventeenth year, grew sad and pensive, envied the preference which he fancied that the object of his attachment manifested to *Albert*, and, without pressing *Camilla* to any explanation of the state of her affections, resolved to embrace the life of a wanderer, and to tear himself from the scenes of infancy, childhood, and love. In vain *Antonio*, a young but prudent fisherman, in whose conversation he delighted, powerfully struggled to dissuade him from his purpose; and in vain his sage and afflicted father, whose health began visibly to decline, exhorted him to resume his accustomed cheerfulness. The casual arrival of a demure and doubting stranger, who had rambled over extensive tracts of the new world in quest of sublime truths, which seemed ever to mock his grasp, gave a fresh impulse to Raymond's resolves. Even his father's demise, and his own unsolicited vows of abiding with a widowed mother, did not long retard the execution of his romantic and foolish schemes: but in an evil hour, and with a sorrowing heart, he bade adieu to his native valley, and pursued his solitary way to Marseilles.

'I long wandered on the quay, (he continues,) without forming any plan. Several ships were on the point of sailing. The indifference of the mariners who were busied around me, the sight of frail vessels doomed to perish in the storm, and the odour of saline vapours which rose from the sea, all conspired to aggravate my sadness. In the distance, some sailors were preparing for their departure, while others shouted for joy, and danced on the strand. A solitary individual, estranged from all these passions, leant on an anchor, and gazed on the waves in profound melancholy. His heart was obviously loaded with affliction: his deportment was noble and majestic: his countenance struck me with astonishment; and the more I examined it, the more deeply was I affected. I perceived, at length, that he was roused from his reverie, and had walked to the sea-shore as the billows began to be agitated. On a nearer approach, I thought I could recognize the stranger whom we had received under our roof, in the valley. Then I gave way to the joy which overpowered me. *Fernand!* exclaimed I, do I see you again? Scarcely had I uttered these words, when I felt myself locked in his arms. Of what a weight was my heart relieved! Another would share my sorrows; and I had found a friend worthy of myself. Already had he divined part of my distress; my most secret thoughts seemed to be his own: he listened to me: he commiserated my condition; and his pity mingled a charm with my sadness. Depart with me, said he: this vessel will instantly set sail for America: the captain is my friend; and I will take charge of your passage. Think not, however, that you will find happiness in the new world. This land, so youthful and so fair, is already old in guilt. We there hear the cries of sorrow and of misery: but there, also, we meet with those sublime spirits who make life desireable. I will conduct you to those cultivators of the soil, who have the courage to defend their liberty: you will behold that *Washington* whom the universe admires: you will fight under his orders; and you will die, if death be the object of your wishes. As *Fernand* finished these words, the firing of a gun from the ship announced the hour of sailing. Time presses, said *Fernand:* let us hasten to the beach.'

During the passage, *Fernand* recounted the circumstance of his mournful visit to the place of his nativity, where his father reposed in the tomb, and he himself was already forgotten: — *Raymond*, too, naturally brooded over his distracting thoughts: — but the voyage was on the whole short and prosperous.

Immediately on their landing in America, *Fernand*, in order to banish his friend's painful recollection of *Albert* and *Camilla*, persuaded him to make excursions into the deserts, and among the savage Indians who dwell beyond the Alleghany Mountains. The imposing scenery of these vast solitudes, and the manners of the natives, are in course duly recorded. *Raymond*, however, sighed for his native vale, and, recalling the

voice of paternal instruction, endeavoured to counteract those gloomy impressions which the eloquent but sophistical suggestions of his guide were too well calculated to make on an unguarded mind. From their reasonings in the desart, which are prettily detailed, *Fernand* seemed to derive some rays of consolation, and to anticipate with satisfaction the higher destinies of his nature: but it was now time that they should volunteer their services in the republican army; and they had not long submitted to military probation, when they were promoted to the rank of officers, and *Fernand* was intrusted with an important command.

'The sole object of my ambition,' continued *Raymond*, 'was to imitate him. Constantly beside him, I courted danger; for I only wished to die. In the meanwhile, it was rumoured throughout the camp that the hour of a decisive battle was at hand. One evening, *Fernand* called at my tent. "To-morrow," said he, in a low voice, "is the grand day: the orders which I have received prove it beyond a doubt. *Raymond*, let us embrace: perhaps we meet for the last time." He pronounced these words with a calm countenance, took me by the hand, and, having led me beyond the camp to the sea-shore, we there passed some moments which, while I live, I cannot forget; for to me they were the last moments of delusion.'

In the course of the same evening, *Raymond* received intelligence that his mother was pining with sorrow, and that *Camilla* still loved him with undeviating fidelity. This communication, which thrilled him at once with anguish and with joy, came from the hand of *Albert*; who, moreover, urged his immediate return, with all the warmth and generosity of friendship.

Next morning, the work of slaughter commenced. *Raymond*, who performed prodigies of valour, was dreadfully wounded, and, being supposed to be dead, was stripped of every particle of clothes. The horrors of his forlorn condition, and his feelings and reflections, especially when he found that he was deprived of sight, are exhibited in the author's most moving style of description. At length, after having been repeatedly on the point of expiring, he was conducted, by the kind offices of a charitable woman, to a military station, and thence to an hospital. To the same receptacle, *Fernand* had been likewise conveyed, and soon breathed his last in the arms of his friend; lamenting that he had never loved, that he had missed the real happiness of life by despising his fellow-men, and that, while in pursuit of imaginary felicity, he had experienced only disappointment and sorrow. His corpse was abruptly snatched away, and consigned to the common burying-ground. *Raymond* at length recovered from his wounds and

afflictions, wept over the undistinguished grave of his friend, and gladly took an eternal leave of the land which had witnessed his sorrow and repentance.

Having once more set foot on his native soil, he engaged a poor sailor to guide him to his paternal cottage: but that cottage he found destitute of inhabitants. *Antonio*, without recognizing his features, apprized him that his mother had died of a broken heart; that *Camilla* had retired into the farthest corner of the valley, where she lived with her mother in tranquil obscurity; and that *Albert*, the victim of an unavailing passion, had sought an asylum in the Alps. *Raymond* passed the night in a state of indescribable emotion, and bent his steps in the morning, partly under the guidance of a child, and in the disguise of a beggar, to *Camilla*'s hut.

'I had approached (he says,) the poplars which surround her abode, when I heard *Camilla*'s voice. My strength and courage entirely forsook me; and I was obliged to support myself against a tree. At length, freed from the weight which oppressed me, in an altered tone of voice I petitioned for succour. "Come in, come in," said she, in the sweetest accent imaginable; "my mother is at no great distance; and she will help me to assist you." As she spoke, I felt a hand that took hold of mine, to conduct me into the house. My frame shook, my knees trembled, and I was on the point of falling. "You tremble," said she. Poor *Camilla*, thought I to myself, did you but know that *Raymond* is so near you! She made me be seated: her mother arrived; and I heard them preparing some refreshment. *Camilla* went to the well, to fetch water, with which to cool my hands and face that were scorched by the sun. When she returned, she sat by me, and asked, with kind concern, whither I was going, whether I had any relatives, and by what accident I had strayed into that valley. Only yesterday, I replied, I believed that I had a mother: I came purposely to meet her, and to mingle my tears with hers. Alas! on my arrival, she was no more. "What? so young and so unfortunate," said *Camilla* with emotion. A friend survives, added I, trembling; but, good God! is it possible that she should recognize me! "Heavens! what voice is that?" exclaimed this unfortunate girl; "did you hear it, mother?" With these words, as she presented me with a basin of pure water, her eye caught the ring which she had given me some years before. "Great God!" cried she, in a tone of alarm, "what has become of *Raymond?*" Alas! said I, falling at her knees, he is before you, and comes to implore your pity.'

Camilla then embraced him, and burst into tears. The interview was painful, yet joyous; and, when the first transports of surprize and endearment had subsided, *Raymond* requested to be led to his mother's grave. "Let us go," said she, "let us go, and mourn your poor mother, to whom I vow

that I will be the guide, the stay, and the spouse of her unfortunate son."

A few days afterward, *Raymond* formed, with trembling hands, a pyramid of turf to the memory of *Fernand*. 'The mariner, from the deck of his vessel, contemplates, as he recedes, the insulated cross, which admonishes him of the inconstancy of the waves and the vanity of life. Around this monument I sowed the seeds of *catalpa*, which I had gathered in America from the ground in which the remains of *Fernand* were deposited; and now these trees shade the hill.'

Raymond ceased. The young stranger passed the night in a state of uneasy agitation, and returned, next day, to his father's house. At the distance of twenty years, happening to be at Marseilles, his curiosity prompted him to revisit the valley: but the fisherman's hut and *Raymond*'s dwelling had disappeared, and the memorial to *Fernand* was overthrown. A solitary ploughman informed him, with great indifference, that *Raymond* and his wife were both dead, and that *Charles* had sold his inheritance, and probably had terminated his cares. Shocked at the coldness of the rustic's manner, the stranger abruptly turned away, and went again to muse on *Fernand*'s monument. 'Poor *Raymond*,' he exclaimed, 'of all who loved you, I alone survive!'

In this general outline, we have in course omitted all mention of many of the subordinate incidents and collateral reflections; which, however, are happily conceived, and fill up the design without loading the narrative. The style, throughout, is simple and elegant; reminding us, alternately, of that of *Fenelon* and of *St. Pierre*. The avowed object of the story, which is to discourage young men from leaving home, is too unlimited in its nature; and, if it could be realized, it would only tend to incumber the progress of human society: but the pictures of misery, which are here unfolded, are well calculated to repress that uneasy desire of undefined wandering, which sometimes torments the young and inconsiderate mind. One or two incongruities occur in the character of *Raymond*; he severs himself from all that could be dear to him in life, without ascertaining that *Camilla* had bestowed her affections on another; and he binds himself at once by ties of the strictest friendship to a man whose declared scepticism bespoke that state of mind which he had been taught to regard with horror. From the general complexion of his principles and sentiments, we certainly did not expect that, in his first moments of solitude and despondency, the circumstance of again meeting with an Atheist would have filled his heart with gladness. To descend

scend to a more trifling inconsistency, since the hero of the tale was completely stripped, on the field of battle, it is rather surprising that the plunderers should have overlooked the ring. Yet, notwithstanding these critical abatements from the merits of the performance, we envy not the reader who can rise dissatisfied from the perusal of such a beautiful and affecting narrative.

The Fragments seem to possess less intrinsic excellence, though they contain several passages that cannot fail to amuse or to instruct those who are not profoundly conversant in the science of nature. The first, relating to the phænomenon which the French term *mirage*, to the luminous appearance of the sea at night, and to marine plants and shell-fish, is extremely superficial, and somewhat declamatory.

The second, on insects, presents us with some pretty allusions to a few of the many marvellous proceedings which are exhibited in the economy of these tiny races of beings; particularly the reproductive powers of some, the foresight and industry of others, the skilful construction of their dwellings, their stratagems, &c.

'This multitude of living creatures, so industrious and so minute, marks not the boundaries of animal existence. Millions of beings, endued with life, are stationed within an imperceptible point. A particle of mould, or a drop of water, is a world, which is furnished with its microscopic insects, fishes, and testacea. Here is the domain of prodigies and fairy land. Some lightly balance themselves, and move in little squadrons, like the nautili in the Mediterranean; and others glide along by mimicking the undulations of the serpent. Some, bending into an arch, again unbend, and spring on the object which they wish to seize. Here *Muller* saw an insect burst into shivers, like a bomb, and each of the splinters give birth to an insect like itself; here *Divini* discerned, within a grain of sand, an animal with a scaly back, which, soon after he had observed it, walked forth to take the air, and then returned to enjoy the pleasures of solitude.

'The wheel-animal has its body formed of a multitude of rings, disposed longitudinally. It becomes, at pleasure, thick and short, slender and long; it has even the power of concealing its two little tufts, and its tail, which is armed with a spiny trident. The two tufts are not merely ornamental, but serve to form in the water a current, which conveys to the mouth of the animal the corpuscles on which it feeds. It puts them in motion whenever it is desirous of attracting its prey; and it is owing to an optical illusion that this apparatus resembles a wheel turning on its axis. The tail of the wheel-animal is also of singular service; since, when it wishes to move, it fixes the terminating trident to the plane of its position, and, prolonging the other extremity of its body, like a worm when it crawls, detaches and draws back the tail: it then recommences the same

same operation with a surprising degree of agility, till it has accomplished its end.

'Wheel-animals have been observed to revive, to the number of fifteen times, and after long intervals between their death and resuscitation. It has likewise been remarked as a most extraordinary circumstance, that, if this animalcule be left quite bare when dried, it is incapable of reviving: but it uniformly regains life, if care be taken to cover it with dust. Some naturalists assure us that, in a state of desiccation, it will bear the hottest fire without perishing.

'Such is the interesting spectacle which the microscope unveils to us: all these wonders, lying buried in a drop of water have been brought to light by the sublime genius of man.

'A multitude of animalcules exist which possess the property of reviving, like the wheel-animal; and this phænomenon, instead of being a whim of nature, is perhaps one of her most admirable benefits; since marshes and ditches, which are liable to be dried up in the great heats of summer, would have been rendered desert, without this law, so full of wisdom and foresight.'

M. MARTIN illustrates this latter position by the long suspension of the vital principle in some of the *fuci* and *conferve*. He might have added the circumstance of the mosses in the Bauhinian herbal having been revived at the distance of two centuries; and the crocodiles mentioned by *Humboldt*, which retire into the mud, in which they are baked up during the season of drought, and quietly await the return of the rains, to emerge from their torpid confinement.

The third Fragment contains some amusing observations on Flowers, which, in the true French style, the author calls the 'jewels of nature,' 'daughters of the air,' &c.: but, when stripped of its rhetorical decorations, the amount of the whole article scarcely exceeds in value a small portion of the information which is contained in our best elementary works on botany. The remarks, however, on the relations which subsist between plants, the inferior animals, and man, if not original, are at least ingenious; and they are stated much in the manner of *St. Pierre*, when that interesting writer discourses of the real or fancied harmonies of nature.

The fourth, on Animals, is composed nearly after the same model as the preceding, being of a somewhat general and rather declamatory aspect: but the notices of appropriate and remarkable instincts cannot fail to please, and often to instruct the uninitiated; while the concluding eulogium on morality and religion is penned in a strain of sublime and affecting eloquence.

In the fifth and last Fragment, we are furnished with some considerations on the Ape and Monkey tribes; which the author very properly regards as inferior, in point of intelligence, not

only to man, but to many of the brute creation. Having established this position, he proceeds to particularize some of the habits and manners of the species belonging to this imitative race of animals. To render his picture of the family more complete, he might have noted some of the feats of the Orang-outang, Ursine Baboon, Preacher-Monkey, &c., which, though well authenticated, are not once introduced; the author's strain of sentimental reflection apparently seducing him from the theme which he had prescribed to himself. From the specimens, indeed, of his larger work, which M. MARTIN has here exhibited, he appears rather to have cultivated the graces of style, and his talent for moralizing on natural phænomena, than to have read extensively or meditated deeply on the phænomena themselves. This description of writing, however, is not without its utility in a popular point of view; since it may allure many to the study of natural history, who would shrink from the sight of volumes bristling with definitions, and loaded with nomenclature: nor can we take leave of the present performance, without bearing our most cordial testimony to the purity of those principles of piety and morality which it is designed to inculcate and diffuse.

ART. IV. *Etudes de l'Histoire Ancienne et de celle de la Grèce*, &c.; *i. e.* Studies of Antient History and that of Greece; of the Constitution of the Republic of Athens and that of Lacedæmon; of the Legislation, Tribunals, Manners, and Customs of the Athenians; of the Poetry, Philosophy, and Arts of the Greeks. By PETER CHARLES LEVESQUE, Knight of the Legion of Honour, Member of the Institute, Professor of History in the Imperial College of France, &c. 5 Vols. 8vo. Paris. 1811. Imported by De Boffe, London. Price 3l. sewed.

HISTORY is become more than a simple relation of facts. Recent models of the art have extended our ideas of perfection. The investigations of the antiquary concerning the costume, the manners, the geography, and the opinions of remote nations are to be studied and employed; and the appreciations of the critic, relative to the literature and art which were contemporaneous with the personages of the event, must be acquired and interwoven. A profound and complete knowlege of the times is the mortar in which the facts are to be visibly imbedded. That antiquarian information concerning the age rather than the incident to be described, which a Henry compiles in separate chapters, is expected from the historiographic artist: but it is now exacted that he should make it grow out of the narration. His erudition must be worked into

into the edifice, not exhibited in lumpish disconnection. He must preserve the epic form, without sliding into academic discussion.

M. Levesque is aware of the difficulties of his art, and of the claims of a refined public; and he talks well in his preface respecting the precautions which are necessary to success: but his patience has ill corresponded with his intention; and he has not taken the necessary time wholly to acquire, far less to imbraid, the accessory information and tributary help of professional or travelled research. In transcribing an analysis of the principal materials included in the work, we shall pause occasionally to criticize.

The first volume and part of the second treat of primæval history; or of those heroic ages that mingled, with the records which they have bequeathed, much of fabulous and mythologic ornament. About the time of Darius the son of Hystaspes, a just taste in history began. All that Herodotus compiled concerning earlier periods merits a very qualified confidence.

Chapter I. treats of Judæa. The author does not venture historically to appreciate the Jewish records, but refers to *Bossuet*'s summary. This is pusillanimous. The blunders common to *Rollin* and to *Bossuet* might have been indicated and corrected: they still blemish all the popular epitomes.

Chapter II., on India, displays a comprehensive knowlege of the best modern critical works relative to Indian antiquities. The *Institutes of Menu* are repeatedly quoted: but this important observation escapes the author's notice, that fire-worship was the basis of the early religion of Hindostan, (c. ii. v. 23. 27, 28, &c.) and that the higher classes were originally mountaineers, who came to settle among Vlechas, speaking a distinct dialect. As Persia was the *patria* of fire-worship, it is to Persia that we must refer the elementary civilization of Hindostan.

The third chapter treats of Thibet, but is short and unsatisfactory. The fourth relates to China, and is more elaborately compiled. The excellent preliminary matter of *Langlès*, in his *Alphabet Mantchou*, is used with merited confidence. The *Observations sur le Voyage de M.* Barrow *à la Chine*, published by M. *Deguignes*, who was a French resident at Canton, and visited Pekin by order of his government, are mentioned with praise; and the vast accounts of Chinese population are rationally questioned.

Chapter V., of Japan, contains nothing new. The use of studying the condition of the Japanese is to know what the Chinese owe to their proper progenitors, which features they have in common with the Japanese; and what they owe to their Tatar

conquerors, who have produced no effect on Japan. The Japanese cultivate the potatoe: but the author hesitates to pronounce whether from them the Portuguese learned the use of this root, and carried it to Europe, or whether the Japanese owe it to the Portuguese.

In the sixth chapter, we are brought to Tatary: as M. Levesque properly names the country. The Chinese call the people Tatas; and their native historian, Abulgasi Bayadoor Khan, names them Tatars. They are akin to the Turkish tribes. This also is a meagre chapter, and throws no new light on the early condition of the nations scattered over Tatary. A vast internal or mediterranean sea, of which the Caspian and Aral are remnants, appears to have occupied in former times the centre of Asia.

The second part of the work narrates the antient history which has been transmitted to us by the Greeks, under the following subdivisions:

1. Syria. The fragments of Ctesias, which accompany many editions of Herodotus, are here considered as a genuine book; whereas it seems more probable that they are forgeries, made at the time of Alexander's expedition into Persia, and not founded on any information attained by the physician of Artaxerxes. A proper use is made of the scriptural book of Kings, but the references are careless.

2. Phœnicia. The English authors of the Universal History are here censured for their excessive confidence in various antiquarian dreams of the antients. In fact, the present age has attained a maturer judgment. The German translators of the Universal History, in their learned annotations, long ago pointed out many important errors; and the German Scripture-critics have recently proved the necessity of vast rejections. If that work should ever be reprinted, it will require a perpetual commentary, and numerous omissions.

3. Assyria. Here occurs matter which is borrowed without criticism from Diodorus Siculus. Who was Sardanapalus? The Nebu-Zaradan of the Jewish chronicles; a nabob, hereditary governor, or king, at Nineveh, who attempted to hold that place for the descendants of Cyrus against Darius the son of Hystaspes, and who perished in the flames of his palace. M. Levesque, however, relates the whole story in the old way, doubling the dynasty, and antedating the chronology, like *Rollin*.

4. Media. The testimony of Herodotus is justly preferred to that of Ctesias, which is over-rated by Diodorus Siculus, whom the moderns transcribe.

5. Persia,

5. Persia, or Iran. M. LEVESQUE rashly trusts the romance of Xenophon, and relates the antient history of Persia more according to the Cyropædia than according to Herodotus: but he has the merit of perceiving the radical identity of Persian and Jewish religion. He describes (p. 222.) both nations as practising the emblematic worship of fire; and both as receiving an evil principle, under the name of Satan or Ariman, in some degree independent of the good Supreme Being.

6. Egypt. This country is a favourite seat of French speculation and dissertation. Their travellers have explored, their geographers have measured, their antiquaries have blazoned, and their artists have illustrated, every ruin which has been dirtied by the ooze of the Nile. Much of their national celebrity is recalled to mind by mentioning the monuments of Egypt; and these are here treated with disproportionate detail. The latter half of the first volume, and the first half of the second, are entirely occupied with Egyptian antiquities. A separate chapter is consecrated to every god in Jablonski's Pantheon. We will translate the account of Phthas:

'Phthas and Kneph were the same god, the plastic spirit of the universe, but considered under different attributes. In Phthas, the supreme intelligence, — in Kneph, the supreme goodness, was worshipped.

'The Greeks took Phthas for their Vulcan: not Vulcan the son of Jupiter and Juno, who was hurled on Lemnos and lamed by his fall, and whose deformity was the diversion of the gods, but the Vulcan of Orpheus, who was considered as the eternal fire, the purest element and essentially active principle of nature, the creative Vulcan, whose work is the world, who animates all and devours all, who shines in the sun and stars, and is the everlasting light; in a word, the soul of the universe, whose vivifying heat being withdrawn, the whole would crumble into a dark and chilly chaos.

'On the obelisk at Rome, which Ammianus Marcellinus mentions, Phthas is called the father of the gods, and also the organizer, or orderer. This god is named, probably by an error of the transcriber, in some passages of the antients, Emeph and Cameph, instead of Cneph; he is the caloric of our chemists.

'In the course of time his worship was neglected; and the devotion of the people, fond of sensible objects and new combinations, turned to the sun, the moon, and the Nile, whence it hoped for benefits more substantial. Kneph and Phthas were forsaken for Osiris, Isis, and Horus. It appears that in the time of Herodotus a temple of Phthas, or of Vulcan, existed only at Memphis; he was called by pre-eminence the Memphian god. If festivals were instituted in honour of him, the forms observed in them are not distinctly known.'

Surely M. LEVESQUE commits an error in saying that this god *went out of fashion*. He was also worshipped by the name of

of Serapis, as a careful examination of the testimonies will shew. From the time of Ptolemy's dedicating a statue to Phthas-Serapis, the latter name prevailed :—but the Memphian god is called, by Herodotus, Vulcan; and by Strabo, (p. 1161.) Serapis. The name of Serapis has never been satisfactorily explained. He was the great Pan, the animated whole of the pantheists. His worship retained under Hadrian its antient popularity. In a letter to Severianus, which Vopiscus has preserved, the Emperor says, "*Illi qui Serapin colunt Christiani sunt, et qui se Christi episcopos dicunt, unus illis Deus est; hunc Christiani, hunc Judæi, hunc omnes venerantur et gentes.*"

The third part of this work treats of Greece during the heroic ages. It is contended (vol. ii. p. 77.) that Greece was peopled from the north: but, in our judgment, the mass of population came from Asia-minor. Religion and language point alike to an oriental origin. The little that is known of the northern neighbours of the Greeks exhibits them as of the Cimbric stock.

In his discussion of the siege of Troy, the author suspects that city to have been colonized from Nineveh, the metropolis of the Kings of Assyria; a conjecture which is not improbable. He explains the tradition of the wooden horse, by supposing it to have been one of those machines, that were afterward called battering rams, of which the front represented a horse's head.

A curious dissertation intervenes on the antiquity of writing, and of inscriptions, among the Greeks. Until the reign of Darius son of Hystaspes, according to the author, no certain history was possessed, but mere poetic tradition. The Olympiads, like all æras, were made to begin before their institution.

Attica, in the fabulous and heroic age, constitutes the topic of the ensuing chapter. Sparta, Lycurgus, his constitutions, and the war of the Spartans against the Messenians, fill four successive sections.

Athens, and the causes of the commencement of the Medic war, are analyzed in two chapters, which terminate the second volume; and in these two volumes are comprized all that is most original and peculiar in the inquiries and opinions of the author. The remaining three volumes are profusely indebted to the Anacharsis of *Barthélémy*, and repeat much notorious matter with ordinary detail.

Volume III. is divided into sections, which narrate the Peloponnesian war, the Sicilian expedition, the expulsion of the tyrants of Athens, the institution of the Amphictyonic council, the early history of Macedon, the reign of Philip, and the conquests of Alexander.

The

The history of Greece, from the death of Alexander until its submission to the Romans, is commenced in the third volume.

Of the fourth volume, the first two chapters continue the same topic. At page 73. begins a separate history of the Ptolemaic dynasty in Egypt; a subject which is eminently worthy of a classical scholar. It is divided into thirteen chapters, corresponding with the reigns of as many sovereigns. Though too concise to evolve the great influence which the accession of this dynasty has exerted on the culture of the world, this portion of the work nevertheless forms the most agreeable part of M. LEVESQUE's composition: it would bear a separate translation in its present form, and will, we hope, one day be published apart, revised and extended by the author; chastened by criticism, and supported by references.

I. Ptolemy, son of Lagus. This prince, being in conversation with a pedantic antiquary, asked, by way of baffling him, what was the name of the father of Peleus?—And what was the name of the father of Lagus? retorted the antiquary, apparently reflecting on the obscure birth of Ptolemy, but in fact insinuating that, like another Achilles, he constituted the centre and only motive of genealogic curiosity.

II. Ptolemy Philadelphus. To this prince M. LEVESQUE ascribes the completion of the Serapeum, a sort of college, to which many philologers and a vast library were attached; it was, however, not only the plan but in fact the work of his great father. He had more merit in the construction of a carriage-road from Myos-hormos to Coptos. The usual error is here committed, of ascribing to the patronage of this prince the Alexandrian version of the Scriptures, which was certainly begun by Aristobulus, under Ptolemy Philometor. To Philometor was dedicated the introduction to the Pentateuch; to Philometor was dedicated the epilogue to Esther; and the second book of Maccabees dates (c. i. v. 10.) the communications with Aristobulus about the manuscripts, at that period.

III. Ptolemy Evergetes. He acquired this epithet of *benefactor*, for recovering many statues of which Cambyses had despoiled the temples in Egypt.

IV. Ptolemy Philopator. This prince, though cruel and a libertine, was attached to literature: he sought the conversation of the philosopher Sepherus, was an enthusiast of hero-worship, and consecrated a temple to the memory of Homer.

V. Ptolemy Epiphanes, who, on his father's death, acceded to the throne at five years of age. His governors injudiciously put him under the protection of the Romans; and Marcus Emilius Lepidus being deputed by the senate to undertake the guardianship

guardianship of the prince, the foundation of a foreign faction was thus laid in Egypt, and of eventual subjection to Rome.

VI. Ptolemy Philometor. Cleopatra, the mother of this sovereign, governed during his early years. He married his sister Cleopatra, who was accomplished and amiable. These females being of Syrian extraction, and Jewesses, effected a religious revolution at court; and the Egyptian idolatry was abandoned by Ptolemy for the monotheism of Palestine. Then was founded a Greek worship for the Egyptian Jews; then first was undertaken the Alexandrian version of the Jewish Scriptures; and then were expelled from the college of the Serapeum the polytheistic philosophers and poets, who were superseded by pantheists and mystics.

VII. Ptolemy Physcon, or Evergetes II. This prince had quarrelled with his brother and predecessor, who, with more generosity than prudence, partitioned the Ægyptian empire in his favour, and gave him Cyrene, with the dependent district of Libya. He re-united the territories on the death of Philometor, whose widow Cleopatra he married. She maintained for some time the ascendancy which her talents deserved, and put the whole administration into Jewish hands; as Josephus, in his book against Apion, records: but her niece, a younger Cleopatra, or rather her daughter, was called to the royal couch in her stead.

VIII. Ptolemy Alexander. This was the second son of Physcon. He appears to have been preferred to his elder brother, because the latter was not of the religion of the Jews, against whom (p. 107.) he is stated to have made a peculiar war. We should have been glad of precise references, in order to verify some circumstances of the persecution here detailed.

IX. Ptolemy Lathyr, or Cicero: who was the rightful heir, and who at length contrived to expel his brother, the usurper: but he was odious wherever the monotheists had churches, as at Diospolis, which rebelled, and which he reduced to subjection by an extensive massacre. These persecutions were the models of those which the Roman Emperors inflicted on the Christians.

X. Ptolemy Alexander II.; who was the son of the former Ptolemy Alexander. He had been sent for education to Sinope, where was established a Greek college for oriental religion. Mithridates undertook the protection of his youth: but he deserted that guardian, and sought refuge in the camp of Sylla, who placed him on the throne of Egypt. He bequeathed the country by will to the Roman people.

XI. Ptolemy Auletes, so called from his passion for playing on the flute: he was an illegitimate son of Lathyr, but, being

attached to the Roman party, and able to distribute money in the Roman senate, he conciliated the support both of Pompey and of Cæsar, which placed him on the throne. He was a decided polytheist; on which account the Alexandrians rebelled against him, and enthroned a Berenice, (a sort of princess Sophia, who was of the royal family, and of their own religion,) whom they married to a prince Seleucus of the Babylonian Greek dynasty, and who like her professed the orthodox monothesim. This revolution, however, was not permanent; the Romans having sent Gabinius, the proconsul of Syria, to restore Auletes, who conducted himself at Alexandria as a patron of paganism, like the Herodian family at Jerusalem.

XII. A son of the flute-player, called Ptolemy the Younger, became King at the age of thirteen. He, or his council of regency, ordered the assassination of Pompey. Afterward, he attempted to assert the independence of Alexandria against Cæsar. The Romans then attacked him riotously: he attempted flight, and was drowned in the harbour where he was endeavouring to embark.

XIII. The Cleopatra of Mark Anthony now succeeded to the throne, and on her death Egypt became completely a Roman province. Her grandson, Ptolemy Evergetes the Third, a son of King Juba by her daughter Selene, made some attempts for recovering the independence of Egypt: but he was imprisoned, and executed as a rebel, by Caligula.

The history of Sicily succeeds. In six following chapters, are narrated the reigns of Gelo, Dionysius the first and second, Dion, Timoleon, and Agathocles.

The author then returns, we know not why, to Athens, and recapitulates the history of Greek poetry in Europe, beginning with Homer and Hesiod, and passing on to Æschylus, Sophocles, Euripides, and Aristophanes. This going back to early times, after having mingled with the reigns of the Ptolemies so many particulars of Alexandrian literature, has a bad effect.

Next follows a literary history of Greek philosophy, which occupies almost the whole of the fifth and concluding volume. Much new matter might have been introduced in this department, by the aid of *Meiners*, *Tiedemann*, and other moderns.—One curious circumstance is rendered obvious, that almost every eminent philosopher of the Greeks was a disciple of the oriental schools of monotheism, and did not arrive among the polytheists at the exercise of reason. Socrates is almost a solitary instance of rational culture attained without peregrination; and his opinions have passed through the sieves of Xenophon and Plato.

To

To the history of philosophy succeeds an account of the historical writers, which is somewhat deficient. Of the arts of sculpture and painting, little is said; and that little not well.

In conclusion, we think that this is one of those books which our magazines and periodical publications may do well to rifle, but which it may be expedient for our translators to overlook. It will not form an epoch in literature: it is more than a bite, but less than a treat; and it is rather to be classed among the crude and scanty banquets of aspiring poverty, than among the choice entertainments of refined and opulent intellect.

ART. V. *La Conversation*, &c.; *i. e.* Conversation, a Poem. By J. DELILLE. 12mo. Paris. 1812. London, imported by De Boffe, Price 8s.

THOSE who expect that this little poem will furnish them with rules for conversation will be disappointed. Instead of rules, which would be useless in an art depending exclusively on nature improved by habit, the author has contented himself with giving portraits of excellence and of deficiency, for imitation or for caution. It was customary among the antients, for the purpose of inspiring in their children a horror of drunkenness, to expose before them in the market-place a slave reduced by liquor to that degree of senselessness which borders on a species below the human; and the young artists of Greece were instructed by frequenting a gallery, which brought under one point of view all that was exquisite and all that was erroneous in their art. M. DELILLE, the translator of one antient poet and the imitator of many, has endeavoured to turn to account both these customs, for the good of society.

The work is divided into three cantos. The defects of wit form the theme of the first; those of character are treated in the second; while the amiable man who unites good taste with good morals, and the power of amusing with strict principles of conduct, is represented in the third.

The French are perhaps the best talkers in Europe. No people, it is true, have more refined on amusement and pleasure; and no people have brought the stage to an equal degree of perfection, whether it be considered as the school of dialogue, of grace in gesture and costume, or of illusion in scenery: but, with all this passion for the stage, and with all this *tact* for its refinements, no people can so well dispense with the theatre as this conversable and sprightly nation. A frugal dinner, followed by a walk in the fields with a plain and sensible companion, is to a Frenchman a luxury which supersedes every other. To talk, to enter into the views of another mind, to

apprehend quickly, and to discover that he possesses the art of making himself fully understood, is his pride and pleasure. The art of agreeably touching and leaving a subject in conformity with the taste of another, of assenting to another's conceptions without monotony or differing from them without asperity, of raillery without a sneer, of discussing slippery and dangerous topics without giving or receiving offence, of discussing books without parade, and of fathoming the severer studies without pedantry, — that happy art is exclusively a Frenchman's own. If M. DELILLE has not on the whole satisfied our expectation in the poem before us, it is not from his want of feeling the charm of the delightful faculty which forms the subject of his verse. He *does* feel it, and never has it more forcibly been pourtrayed than in the extract from his preface, which we select for the consideration of those who would form themselves in the same school:

'A society of intelligent and polished persons, united for the purpose of entertaining and instructing each other in an agreeable conversation, by the mutual communication of their ideas and their sentiments, has always appeared to me a happy representation of the human species and of social perfection. Thither each person carries his desire and his resources of pleasing, his sensibility, his imagination, his experience, the whole embellished by politeness and restrained by decency; there we see a mutual instinct of benevolent affections, a sweet sentiment of confidence, inspired by character and fortified by habit; there without formality, without restraint, a mild police is established, founded on the respect which one man inspires in another when in society, from the necessity of being on good terms, and from a kind of shame which, in the presence of numerous auditors and witnesses, repels all that is offensive, unskilful, and unjust; there a word or a glance of the eye calls forth a confession, prevents an inconvenience, commands respect, awakens attention, or represses petulance; there the mind, exercised by observation and experience, reads in the eyes, on the face, or in the air of each person, that which his self-love fears or desires to hear, and, confirming to society the balance of opposite pretensions and of rival vanities, forms an harmonious agreement of all that might otherwise degenerate into opposition and discord, recommends each companion to another, inspires in them a desire of meeting again, and sows in the evening the enjoyments of the morrow.'

Before the time of M. DELILLE, this happy and enchanting art was treated by Theophrastus, by *La Bruyère*, *Tarillon*, *Clement Bondi*, Stillingfleet, and the Jesuit *Janvier*. Theophrastus and *La Bruyère* have not unfrequently been compared: if the latter has the superiority, it is owing not merely to his age and the people whom he represented, but to his power of seizing and pourtraying to the life each individual. The examples of excellence cited by M. *Suard*, and more especially the character

of

of Zenobia, are unrivalled. It is easy to perceive with what art the painter of "Characters" arranges and disposes his colours in that famous portrait. The reader, or rather the spectator, is hurried on from surprize to surprize: the interest increases at every phrase: it is a little *scene*, and has all the artifice of a dramatic plot. The power of producing effect, of keeping up the attention by contrasts, and of stimulating curiosity by the rapidity and variety of figures, was the great secret which was discovered and kept by *La Bruyère*.

The art of talking cannot be brought to perfection but in that society in which females are held in consideration; and to this circumstance M. DELILLE attributes the vast advantage which the moderns, and more particularly his own countrymen, have over the antients. The Greeks and Romans, among whom the sexes rarely met, were far from attaining to that excellence which has long been reached at Paris. Men who meet men choose rather to discuss politics or books, or matters more serious than those which present themselves at the interposition of women. The Athenians were undoubtedly great talkers; and it would have been perhaps as difficult to find a discreet and silent man at Athens as to find one of loquacity at Lacedæmon: but, from the absence of women, the Athenians might have been said rather to discourse than to converse. Plutarch, who presents us with more details of private life among the antients than any other writer, has left nothing which can induce us to believe that the art of conversing had in his time arrived at any degree of perfection. He has composed, it is true, a treatise on the highly estimable art of hearing: but that treatise is reduced to precepts by which young people may derive instruction from the lessons of philosophers. In his first chapter, on Table-talk, he discusses whether it be fit to talk of literature at a feast: but all the other chapters turn on antient usages, and subjects bearing no reference to the art of conversing. His treatise "On too great Garrulity" has been frequently excelled by others; and Theophrastus has left a good portrait of a great talker. Plato, in some of his dialogues, assumes a familiar air: but, to form a precise idea of Grecian excellence, we should be made acquainted with the topics which were discussed in the drawing-room of Aspasia. This, however, would have been impossible; because conversation is of so fugitive a nature, that it applies exclusively to the moment, and to the circle in which it is going on. It cannot be caught and registered in books *. By such an at-

* Shall Boswell's Life of Johnson be made an exception to this remark?

tempt it loses the natural grace by which it is distinguished;—the life which it receives from the voice, from the gesture, from the physiognomy of the person,—from the attitude and impression of his hearers,—from the tone and manners of good company. 'Conversations,' says the present author, 'which pass from a drawing-room into a book, resemble those flowers which are inclosed in an herbarium, where they quickly lose their perfume and their colour.'

Tarillon was the first who drew up a metrical digest of the rules for conversing, in the poem intitled, "*Ars Confabulandi*:" but this holy man was better versed in the study of the antients than in knowlege of the world. He presents only a few portraits, and his precepts smell strangely of college. Another Jesuit, Father *Janvier*, has imitated or rather paraphrased his poem, in French verse.

The Germans have nothing of this kind.—Among us, Stillingfleet, who attempts the subject, brings into the field declamations and speculations of philosophy; and his style of conversation, were it not too profound, would be daily heard in the combination-rooms of Cambridge and of Oxford. He draws no portraits, and never once gives his reader a place in the society.—*Clement Bondi* has written a little Italian poem on this subject, intitled "*Conversazioni*;" a word which is well known to mean "a society, an assembly, a meeting of people," among whom frequently not a word passes. The art of talking is therefore only a secondary object with *Bondi*, who contents himself with presenting a gallery of portraits and pictures as episodes. "Come with me," says *Bondi*; "the actors shall be select; and a vast hall shall be the theatre." His poem is not devoid of merit: it is animated, and possesses an excellence which English authors have long renounced; it is rapid.

Having given this summary of the subject, let us add that the poem of M. DELILLE has met with considerable applause at home, which perhaps is conferred rather on a veteran pen, than on any great excellence in the work which is encouraged. We regret much to say that the extract, describing the charm of an amiable assemblage met for the purpose of conversing, is in our judgment the most valuable that can be made from the whole composition. It is singular, indeed, that a work devoted to the exposure of bad taste should present examples of bad taste in its last and expiring agonies. Nothing can less assort with the character of *conversible*, than affectation of any kind: but of all affectations, (next to that unpardonable one of bluntness and rudeness, the usual cloaks for craft and artifice,) the ambitious and epigrammatic are the most offensive. The poem before us is a cento of epigrams. The politician, however, is well drawn. He is described

scribed in the act of setting power against power, of boasting his early and authentic information, of marshalling cabinet against cabinet, and army against army. This is well done: but the conclusion is an epigram.

'Mais tandis qu' à son gré, troublant toute la terre,
Son babil triomphant fait ployer sous nos coups
L'aurore et le couchant, le Nord et l'Angleterre,
De tous côtés l'ennui gagne, et c'est nous
Qui payons les frais de la guerre.'

We might excuse the company for defraying the expences of the war waged by this great man, but we cannot pardon the disputant who is vexed at finding that another is of his own opinion, and who expresses his vexation by telling him that he is wrong in being right:

'La triste jouissance où sa manie aspire
Et d' être contredit, afin de contredire;
Vous le désobligez en vous montrant plus doux;
Et pour redoubler son courroux,
Peut-être il suffisoit de dire
"Monsieur, je pense comme vous."
Aussitôt par dépit et par vanité même,
Depuis qu'il est le vôtre, abjurant son système.
"Monsieur," dit-il, haussant le ton,
"Je ne suis plus de mon opinion;"
"La vôtre est à mes yeux d'une évidence extrême,
"Et vous avez grand tort de me donner raison."

These two epigrams will by their point give an idea of the whole work. It is made up of portraits. As the author himself says, every portrait forms as it were a short comic scene, *brevis comædia.* Each person himself gives the key to his own character, and makes himself ridiculous by his own words. This mode is well illustrated by the first verses which *Molière* puts into the mouth of the *Tartuffe*: the first four lines uttered by that personage form a complete history, and make the spectator as well acquainted with him as if he had committed a thousand bad actions, and canted a thousand hypocritical *saws* and sentences:

"Laurent, serrez ma haire avec ma discipline,
Et priez que toujours le ciel vous illumine.
Si l'on vient pour me voir, je vais aux prisonniers,
Des aumônes que j'ai partager les deniers."

After this full and explicit introduction, he must be an infant who is not already intimate with the *Tartuffe.* The first care of the portrait-painter is to know and to trace thoroughly the principal features of each character.—We have ventured to arraign this veteran poet for closing each character with an epigrammatic turn; but an epigram in France is almost a little

fortune to its writer. In a court in which the necessity of pleasing superseded every other, the objects who exposed themselves to this passing ridicule were numerous; and in a country in which despotism removed the power of acting, this species of composition was converted into an arm of the severest vengeance. When detached, we prize these sallies of wit as much as our masters in the art: but a poem of epigrams, a stimulant repeated on a sense which it has jaded, is that which we must again deprecate.

It must, however, be confessed that this work is not without merit; and, as we do not wish to withhold that merit from our readers, we subjoin a few extracts, which are selected by M. DELILLE himself as more finished than the ordinary tenor of the poem.

Garrulity.—'Permit me,' says the author, 'to take an example from my work of this species of merit [that of accurately pourtraying a character]. The great talker wishes to reserve for himself the longest possible time, and to leave the least possible to others; he has taken an aversion for writing and printing, because they anticipate what he promises to say and to relate. The poet might give us this information, but it were better to gain it from the garrulous man himself: he imparts it in the following verses:

'*Je vois des voyageurs, de leur itinéraire*
Qui pouvait enrichir la conversation,
A leur retour affubler un libraire,
Et d'un manuscrit téméraire
Avant le temps risquer l'impression.
Misérable parti dont il faut se défendre!
Celui qui vous a lu ne veut plus vous entendre;
Et, pour entretenir la curiosité,
Il faut un peu de nouveauté.
Je l'éprouvai cent fois; aussi les gens que j'aime
De mes récits ont toujours la primeur;
Je ne fais point dire par l'imprimeur
Ce que je puis dire moi-même.
Aux mêmes lieux réunis une fois,
Nous pourrons converser enfin de vive-voix.
Dans l'absence on a beau s'écrire,
Le papier transmet tout, mais il n'explique rien:
C'est en parlant qu'on s'entend bien;
Et combien nous avons de choses à nous dire!

'To give more effect, (continues M. DELILLE,) to these characters, perhaps it would be necessary to place two persons swayed by the same passion at the side of each other: but, in that case, one of them should carry the prevailing vice or the passion farther than the other. In this we should find the merit of a difficulty vanquished; and this is what I have attempted in the following picture of the miser:

'*En*

' *En sortant il rencontre un rival d'avarice :*
Deux avares ensemble, ô surprise ! ô bonheur !
Oh ! que Molière en eût ri de bon cœur !
Le premier, saisissant l'occasion propice,
Dit au second : " *Monsieur, mille pardons,*
" *Je vous ai, l'an dernier, fait passer de mes vignes*
" *Quelques vins qui de vous n'étaient pas trop indignes ;*
" *Si vous pouvez renvoyer les poinçons,*
" *Et les flacons vidés, et même les bouchons,*
" *Je vous saurai gré du message.*
" *C'est vous faire descendre à de bien petits soins ;*
" *Mais, vous vous occupez comme moi du ménage,*
" *Et sûrement, si vous m'en aimez moins,*
" *Vous m'en estimez davantage.*"

' As this kind of poesy is deprived of all interest of action, and of the two master-springs, fear and hope, variety is almost the only mode of interesting the readers. The artifice of oppositions and of contrasts must be added; I have availed myself of it as often as I could. I have opposed the News-monger, who sees all with a *favourable*, to *another* who sees all with an *unfavourable* eye; I have contrasted the insipid flatterer with the petulant humourist; and I have given a relief to both by the vain circumspection of the reserved man, who

' *Demeure retranché dans sa grave sottise,*
Doute par vanité de tout ce qu'il apprit,
Et meurt sans avoir eu l'esprit
De se permettre une bêtise.

' I have avowed my wish to give to the portraits, which compose my work, some resemblance to the style of comedy. For this purpose, it was necessary that the painting of each character, which I have above termed a concise comedy, should form a scene, and be invested with its peculiar action and its attendants. To add to the little dramatic interest of which each is susceptible, I have been obliged to place them in situations in which their character, irritated by some obstacle or contradiction, thus derived more comic effect. I suppose the poet to place a man who is possessed with the mania of speaking, between two men of the same disposition, of whom one tells the history of his suits at law, the other of his amours; here is at once a situation distressing to the person who is thwarted, and diverting to the spectators: but, if we picture to ourselves a loquacious man, invited to a numerous circle, in which it is his ambition to be distinguished, who has prepared beforehand all his topics for conversation, and on arriving finds in the assembly the preparations for a long recitation and an auditory already pre-occupied by the fashionable author of the day, the situation becomes yet more forcible and more comic.

' Permit me to cite the passage in which I have placed this picture :—

' *Il frémit si quelqu'un commence*
Un récit détaillé de procès ou d'amour ;

Il

Il sait combien, en racontant leurs rixes,
Les plaideurs sont diffus, et les amants prolixes.
Mais, à quel saint n'aura-t-il pas recours,
Si, préludant à sa gloire future,
L'écrivain à la mode, entre un double flambeau,
Et son verre et son sucre, et sa carafe d'eau,
Dans son fauteuil cherchant une posture,
Et tenant en main son rouleau,
Vient, de son chef-d'œuvre nouveau,
Aux assistants proposer la lecture!
Quels beaux moments va lui coûter
Cette épouvantable aventure!
Une soirée entière on eût pu l'écouter!
Combien faut-il que son supplice dure?
Enorme est le cahier, et fine est l'écriture.
Puis, de l'in-folio qu'il vient d'apercevoir,
Le format menaçant aisément fait prévoir
L'éternité de la torture.
Adieu son espérance et ses projets du soir!
. . . . . .
Quel tourment est égal au tourment qu'il redoute,
Il venait pour parler, il faudra qu'il écoute.'

These citations are chosen by M. DELILLE himself as a kind of frontispiece to the poem. Gibbon has said that every sensible author is the best appreciator of his own work: but, be this as it may, since the veteran poet has selected these portraits, they are unquestionably *in his mind* the best, or among the best, in the whole work. They are pregnant with meaning; and the language is in that close and forcible strain which we have often, though it seems uselessly, recommended to our writers, and which is called in France "*le language serré.*" The poem, however, is on the whole fatiguing; the epigrams, after their first titillation, cloy upon the reader; and the eternal attempt at novelty takes off from the surprize of all that is new.

Having expressed our opinion of the verse, we will conclude by one extract more from the prose, which appears to contain an admirable comparison between the state of conversation and of society among the antients and that which is to be found at Paris; with its consequent effects on the Grecian and the French authors who in their different ages characterized it.

' The superiority of the French over the Grecian writer who was his model, and whose work has nothing in common with the other but its title, is no longer disputed. The time and the people for whom *La Bruyère* wrote presented to him great advantages over his predecessor. In the age in which Theophrastus wrote, society, in Greece, was yet far from the degree of politeness and perfection to which it arrived under Pericles. Hence, in his *Characters*, the

reader often finds himself in bad company. When we see pass in review before us the persons whom he describes, we seem to be on the skirts of a wood, at a time when men, yet in a savage state, sallied forth from their forests and caverns. Almost all his portraits present the rude stamp of civilization in its commencement; authority appears without dignity, caprice without wit, and fancy without grace. At every page, we meet with disgusting descriptions of the most ordinary functions of vulgar life, of the markets and meals of Athens. *La Bruyère*, at one time in the most polished societies, at another in the most splendid court of Europe, surrounded by persons distinguished by great names, by great places or great qualities, by titled extravagancies and follies, takes the circle of credit, of power, and of glory; observes and attacks the weak side; and without malevolence, as without flattery, writes the noblest and most interesting part of the history of the world; paints the city and the court mutually influenced, the one by the desire of ruling, the other by the mania of aping the manners and even the absurdities of courtiers; seizes the relative situations of the little and the great; and shews at once the supreme authority reducing all ranks to a level, and attracting to itself all the illusions of a multitude who are the idolaters of grandeur.

'The character of the government has yet perhaps a greater influence on that of society. In Athens, and in Rome, the public square or forum was the habitual theatre of political conversations. There ambitious men, excited by impassioned orators, were accustomed to work on the feelings of an unbridled mob; there neither the insinuations of friendship nor the counsels of prudence were heard, but the rude cries of favor or of hatred. The spectators and the actors of these violent scenes carried them into their private parties, and even to those places to which the citizens repaired for quiet conversation. The favourers, and the partisans who disputed the authority of each other, keeping up the impressions which they had received or imparted, converted the drawing-room into a field of battle; no person was strictly himself; each was a Marius or a Scylla, a Pompey or a Cæsar, an Anthony or an Augustus, and fought for an interest which his desire of pleasing or of succeeding had rendered personal. The noisy vociferations and impetuous commotions which had burst out in public were again repeated in private circles.

'How great is the difference between those turbulent assemblies, and the amiable societies to which France admitted with pleasure strangers the most distinguished by their titles or understandings! If they took home with them at times discontentment and jealous prejudices against the ordinary forms of our societies, they departed more frequently surprized and charmed with all that the vivacity of imagination, the amiableness of character, the grace of language, fineness of *tact*, delicate observation of decorum, and mutual concessions of politeness, had added to the delight and charm of those assemblies; which were preferable to the most brilliant fêtes, to the most exquisite entertainments, and to the most superb spectacles. In these polished circles, in which all ranks, all conditions, and all ages contributed either to the common *ennui* or to the common pleasure,

sure, *La Bruyère* studied men, chose characters, and formed his model.'

This parallel is well and truly drawn. *De Pauw* has nothing equal to it in his Researches. It consoles us for our disappointment in the poem, and enables us to pay a parting compliment, if not to the poet, at least to the amiable and intelligent man.

ART. VI. *Mémoire Historique de la Négociation en* 1778, &c.; *i. e.* Historical Memoir of the Negotiation in 1778, relating to the Succession of Bavaria, and conducted on the Part of the King of Prussia by Count Eustace *de Goertz*. 8vo. pp. 156. Frankfort on the Maine. 1812. Imported by De Bosse. Price 8s.

THE Bavarian succession was, five-and-thirty years ago, a point of as much interest in the politics of Germany as the possession of the crown of Spain is at present in those of Europe. The Elector, who died at the close of the year 1777, was the last male of the reigning branch of the Palatine house; and though the right of inheritance by the collateral branch was undoubted, yet various fiefs obtained by Bavaria after the separation of the two branches were of a nature to be considered as Imperial property on the extinction of the direct heir. As the house of Austria, however, was not likely to limit her pretensions to these fiefs, it had long been suspected throughout Germany that the death of the Elector of Bavaria would be the signal for an attempt to annex that important province to the hereditary states. Joseph II. was now associated in the imperial government with his mother, the well-known Theresa; and the leading minister at the court of Vienna was the celebrated Prince *Kaunitz*. The King of France, being Joseph's brother-in-law, was not likely to throw obstacles in the way; so that the King of Prussia seemed the only potentate that would probably offer opposition: but the Austrian cabinet flattered itself that the Great Frederic's advanced years, and his aversion to renew the miseries of war, would prevent him from making any formidable diversion: particularly since England, embroiled with her colonies, was not in a state to co-operate with her former ally.

When the Elector of Bavaria died, rather unexpectedly, of the small-pox, on 31st December 1777, the intelligence of his death was forwarded to Berlin, and arrived there on the 3d January. Frederic determined on the same day to take steps in opposition to the suspected projects of Austria: but the mode of his proceeding was indicative of the caution which is

inspired by mature age. His dominions had not yet recovered the dreadful devastation of the seven years' war; and he was determined to do nothing hostile till he had ascertained the disposition of the collateral branch of the house of Bavaria, a remonstrance from which would be calculated to render their cause that of the empire at large rather than of Prussia. Under this impression, Frederic declined at first to employ any of his own diplomatic agents; and, in order that he might obtain information without creating suspicion, he fixed his eyes on the Count *de Goertz*, a Saxon nobleman, whose character was known to him chiefly through the medium of a brother, a General in the Prussian service; and, having held a nocturnal conference with this officer, he dispatched him forthwith to the Count, with the following instructions in his own handwriting:

"The death of the Elector of Bavaria having taken place, it would be desirable to know the disposition of the Court-Palatine; namely, whether that court has or has not an understanding with Austria regarding the partition of Bavaria. I have a copy of a treaty, said to be authentic, and purporting to be signed by the Palatine-court and guaranteed by France, stipulating the cession of the duchy of Deux-Ponts. If the Palatine-court and the Duke of Deux-Ponts are gained over to the Austrian-interest, it remains to be ascertained whether the second Prince of Deux-Ponts would not be disposed to protest against the proceeding in question, and to call on the Emperor for assistance. Perhaps this family altogether is too timid to lend a co-operating hand: but, at all events, it is of importance to have the matter ascertained; and the person who shall do this will render a very acceptable service."

The Count *de Goertz*, on receiving this notice, complied with his brother's sollicitation, and lost no time in proceeding on his mission. The following extracts from his letters explain the progress of his inquiries:

"Weimar, 10th January, 1778.

"We have intelligence that the Austrian troops have already entered the Bavarian territory. The Palatine-court, including the Elector, is, I believe, very weak. The Duke of Deux-Points possesses energy, but is accounted harsh and repulsive in his manner. The second Prince of Deux-Ponts is a man of spirit, but he is in the French service. Still I do not think they will consent, at least not without remonstrating, to the hard conditions proposed by the court of Vienna."

"Wurtzburg, 14th January, 1778.

"It appears that the Palatine court has yet contracted no engagement with the court of Vienna with regard to Bavaria. The new Elector was forthwith proclaimed in that capacity: but much consternation prevails at Munich, on account of the approach of a corps of 20,000 Austrians."

From

From Wurtzburg, M. *de Goertz* proceeded to Ratisbon, where his appearance excited much conversation among the diplomatists connected with the Diet. None of them, however, discovered his real object; and it was suspected that he came to fill the vacant place of one of the residents at the Diet. The Austrian minister went so far as to offer to hire a house for him; while the Prussian resident stood aloof, and considered him as in the interest of the court of Vienna. From Ratisbon, *Goertz*, still *incognito*, proceeded to Munich, where he found every body in alarm at the approach of the Austrian troops. Not venturing to declare himself, yet desirous at the same time of encouraging favourable hopes, he took occasion to say, in general terms, that "it was wrong to yield to hasty impressions until the King of Prussia and other powers had time to explain themselves." This caution he introduced in different companies; and so nearly in the same words, that an accompanying friend, who was unacquainted with his commission, could not help smiling at the earnestness and uniform tenor of his declaration. Having here obtained some farther information, he was enabled to write to Frederic as follows:

"The late Elector made a secret family-compact, with the concurrence of the Elector-Palatine, for the purpose of asserting the independence of Bavaria. The Duchess Clementina was the soul of this negotiation, which the sudden death of the late elector alone prevented from being guaranteed by other courts. The present Elector, however, is suspected, as well as his ministers, of having been gained over by Austria; and of being prepared to acquiesce in her claims, the nature of which yet remains unexplained. The Duchess Clementina is the only patriotic person at the court of Munich; and it appears that no steps have been taken to obtain the consent of the Duke of Deux-Ponts, the heir apparent to the electorate."

In the night of the 19th January, two Austrian couriers arrived at Munich; and *Goertz*, on going to the Elector's levée, observed the Austrian ministers come out from a private conference with the Elector. On watching the look of these persons, he perceived an air of confidence and satisfaction in the Austrians; while the Elector appeared ashamed to meet his friends. The Count immediately remarked to a gentleman near him, "that he was certain the deed was done, and that the Elector had subscribed the cession of Bavaria." Finding that nothing was to be accomplished at Munich, he returned to Ratisbon; where he learned that his suspicions were well founded, and that the Austrian resident had officially announced that "the Bavarian succession was settled." The Bavarian ministers, being bribed by the court of Vienna, had put their names to the compact a few days after the death of the late Elector; and the

the object of the speedy notice at Ratisbon was to discourage any opposition from the members of the empire. *Goertz*, however, wrote to Frederic, "that a general discontent prevailed in Ratisbon at the dismemberment of Bavaria; a discontent which was common to the ministers of the Catholic as well as of the Protestant states of Germany. Saxony in particular had cause of alarm: but it would be necessary, he thought, for Prussia to anticipate the intrigues of the Austrian cabinet in that quarter." At Ratisbon, Count G. was invested with the avowed character of minister, and received from Berlin regular letters of credence to the Elector-Palatine; accompanied by a note in the King's hand-writing, desiring him to take no step without the knowlege of the French diplomatic residents. This note, short as it was, proved of great use; for the French ambassadors, being, according to the custom of the Count *de Vergennes*, left without instructions, interpreted the expressions of the King of Prussia into a notice of an understanding between Prussia and France.—From Ratisbon, *Goertz* wrote thus on the first of February to Frederic:

"I set off to-night for Deux-Ponts, and in passing Manheim shall endeavour to secure the Electress-Palatine on our side. I have just had a conference with the Baron *de Leyden*, the only Bavarian minister of talents and patriotism. He is grieved at the fate of his country, but his hopes revive on learning the protection which is intended by your Majesty. I have taken on me to communicate your intentions to the Duchess Clementina, and expectations are entertained that the firm countenance of your Majesty may induce the Empress Theresa to prevent her son from resorting to the alternative of war. I have made it a rule to shew myself frequently in company, and to assume the easy manners of an idle man."

After having proceeded a considerable way on the road to Deux-Ponts, M. *de Goertz* learned that the Duke its sovereign had left his residence, and would shortly arrive at Munich. The moment was critical, since the Duke's presence had evidently been required in order for him to put his name to the partition-treaty with Austria. He had even authorized his minister at Munich, M. *Hofenfels*, to sign this important document before his arrival: but *Hofenfels* was a resolute patriot, unpractised in the vices of courts, and inflexible on the score of integrity. Though the signature of the deed would have gained him a sum of 40,000l. sterling, he resisted all applications, on receiving opportunely a notice from Count *Goertz* of the approaching interference of the King of Prussia. The Count, following the Duke of Deux-Ponts to Munich, was admitted privately into that city, and lodged in the house of the Duchess Clementina. Here he found means to infuse courage into

into the wavering councils of the Duke; and, being seconded by the French minister, he prevailed on that Prince to make a formal claim of the protection of Prussia, and to enter a protest at the imperial Diet against the convention with Austria. All this time, the Austrian ministers at Munich were unapprized that *Goertz* was so near them. They had succeeded in discovering his original commission, but were pleasing themselves with the notion of having completely counteracted it. "What," said one of them, (Baron *Lehrbach*,) "can have become of poor *Goertz?* I have traced him all the way to Suabia on his road to Deux-Ponts, but cannot conceive what he has thought proper to do with himself since."

These important points being settled at Münich, *Goertz* followed the Duke to Deux-Ponts, in order to keep him firm in his favourable disposition. Here he received a letter from the King of Prussia, dated Potsdam, 12th February 1778.:

"I am delighted with your progress. You do very right to follow the Duke to Deux-Ponts, and to fortify him more and more against the flattering promises of Austria. As to the new Elector of Bavaria, he must be left to reap the fruits of his misconduct. He has nobody to blame but himself, and it would be loss of time to attempt to make any alteration in him."

Extract of a Letter from the King of Prussia to Clementina Duchess of Bavaria, dated 13*th Feb.* 1778.

"Ah! Madam, why were not you the Elector? we should not then have witnessed those disgraceful events which put every honest German to the blush. Bavaria is indebted to your Highness for redressing the evil as far as it was practicable. If the Duke of Deux-Ponts will but continue firm, I entertain no fears; and it is to be hoped that the authors of these troubles will be the eventual sufferers."

The sequel of the negotiation shewed that, notwithstanding the feeble and wavering councils of France, *Goertz* was successful in preventing the Duke of Deux-Ponts from yielding to the tempting offers of Austria; who volunteered not only to pay his debts, and to decorate him with the imperial order of the Golden Fleece, but to grant him the subsidy which he had been in the habit of deriving from France. One of the most pleasing marks of approbation received by *Goertz* was conveyed in a letter from the Duke's brother in the French service: it was dated Strasburg, 4th March 1778.:

"I embrace, with much pleasure, an opportunity of testifying to you my gratitude for the excellent conduct which you have prevailed on the Duke, my brother, to adopt. Your good advice has stimulated him to a course which will not only immortalize him, but will restore the fortunes of our house. In consequence of measures which

it

it is not my province to blame, we were on the eve of seeing the termination of our independence. Respect for my relations prevents me from speaking out, but I may add that my despondency was such that nothing but the news of the arrival of a man of ability at Deux-Ponts could have restored my courage."

The Emperor Joseph, however, was not to be stopped in his projects by the refusal of the Duke of Deux-Ponts, nor even by the menacing attitude of Frederic. He had obtained possession of a part of the Bavarian territory; and, in the succeeding April, the Prussian and Austrian armies were once more opposed to each other in the field. The campaign was passed in a series of skilful manœuvres on each side; and the expectation of an approaching arrangement prevented both from resorting to the alternative of a general action. At last the court of Vienna, finding a prevailing concurrence of opinion against it, consented to the independence of Bavaria, and the sword was sheathed on both sides. Count *Goertz*, on returning from Deux-Ponts, was received with much approbation at Berlin; and, making the diplomatic service of Prussia the object of his profession for life, he discharged an important part in subsequent negotiations, particularly in the treaties of 1795 and 1796 between France and Prussia.

The preceding detail is instructive in several points of view. It brings before us on the part of Austria, a power of which we, as a nation, are accustomed to think so favourably, an example of that spirit of unjustifiable aggrandizement which many among us are disposed to consider as confined to the government of France. Recent events have given to the ambitious projects of the latter a shock which they are not likely to recover for a considerable time; and a memorable lesson has been enforced, of the folly of attempting to extend the political dominion of a state beyond its natural limits. It deserves to be remembered, that this important change has been accomplished with little interference on our part. Russia has fought her battle alone, our assistance having been limited to a supply of arms and clothing; and our efforts in Spain, brilliant and successful as they have been, were calculated rather to withhold *Bonaparte* from the rash proceeding to which he has owed his discomfiture. In analyzing the course of continental politics, we find the cure to have been the natural consequence of the evil;—the confidence derived from past success having been the great cause of the change of fortune. All these considerations point to one conclusion,— the expediency of interfering much less with the Continent than we have done during the last twenty years. Such interference is attended with incalculable

loss, and seems, after all, to be unnecessary; since foreign politics, when left to their own course, seldom fail to restore themselves to an equilibrium.

ART. VII. *Napoleon Administrateur et Financier*, &c.; *i. e.* Napoleon considered as an Administrator and Financier; a Sequel to the Historical and Political Table of the Losses caused by the Revolution to the French Nation, published in 1799.* By Sir FRANCIS D'IVERNOIS. 8vo. pp. 330. Dulau and Co London.

IN our different rencontres with Sir FRANCIS D'IVERNOIS, and they have been of frequent occurrence, we have borne testimony to his skill and industry in investigation, while we have found it necessary to enter a caution against the length to which he is apt to carry his conclusions. Something of this kind is still requisite, though the lapse of time appears to have the effect of confining his labours to the examination of the past, and of cooling his ardour for predictions of the future. His present performance is a work of considerable labour and ingenuity. Few persons would have possessed a sufficient share of patient attention to dissect the voluminous productions of the French financiers, and to extract a condemnation of their assertions from details in their own documents. This has been Sir Francis's task:—'My plan,' he says, 'has been to pass over words and to scrutinize facts.' The use to which he has put his laborious investigations has been to explain the magnitude of the aid derived by *Bonaparte*, during the last six years, from his neighbours, in the shape either of direct tribute or of the maintenance of his troops. Adding together the contributions of Spain, Portugal, Austria, Prussia, Holland, Italy, and the lesser German States, Sir F. maintains that the aggregate thus levied since 1805 is not short of sixty millions sterling: but the loss of Spain having caused a material defalcation in this supply, the consequence, he says, must be either a renewal of exorbitant demands on Germany, or a reduction of the military establishment of France. To prove this necessity, he enters on a minute comparison of the receipt and expenditure of the French Treasury; the result of which is that, though the revenue is now increased to thirty-seven millions sterling, the augmentation of charges is so formidable as to render that sum inadequate to the support of her present force. The author adds that we have in general over-rated the number of soldiers which France is enabled to keep on foot; and that, fertile and populous as she is, she possesses no such inherent

* See M. Rev. N. S. *Appx.* to Vol. xxviii. N. S. p. 525., and Vol. xxx. p. 92.

superiority

superiority of resources as to render her the arbitress of Europe, after she shall be deprived of the military talents of the officers who have been formed in the struggle of the Revolution.

In examining the labours of Sir Francis, we shall divide the subject into three branches:

I. The Revenue of France:
II. Her Military Force:
III. Her general Resources.

I. A striking contrast subsists between the finance-accounts of the French government and the declarations, whether speeches or reports, which accompany them. The former are remarkably clear and accurate, while never were public documents more false and inflated than the latter. *Bonaparte* seems to be aware that few Frenchmen will take the trouble of analyzing arithmetical statements of a hundred folio pages, while a great many will read with avidity the outline contained in a flourishing harangue. It may be in the recollection of our readers that, in the beginning of the present war, he promised to impose no new taxes; a promise which was repeated almost every year, and was observed with just as much fidelity as his other engagements. The following was the debit-side of his budget for the year 1811:

Interest of the French national debt, sterl.	£2,480,000
——— Dutch ditto, reduced by a dash of the pen to a third of its former amount	1,040,000
Life annuities	700,000
Pensions, civil and military	530,000
———, ecclesiastical	1,150,000
Civil list of Princes of the Empire	1,130,000
Administration of justice	1,100,000
Department of foreign affairs	350,000
Home department	2,400,000
Finance department	1,300,000
Army	18,400,000
Navy	5,600,000
Public worship	650,000
General police	80,000
Discounts on collector's acceptances, &c.	330,000
Allowance for unforeseen expences (equivalent to our vote of credit)	880,000
	£38,120,000

The chief subject of misrepresentation in the French financial accounts is the expence of the army: which is greatly under-rated, and the deficiency is made good by foreign tribute. So long ago as the war of the Revolution, the annual expence of French troops in the field was computed at 40*l.* a man; and, with the subsequent enhancement of pay, clothing, provision, and other articles, it is now greatly augmented. If to this we add the ordnance, fortifications, and salaries of civil officers, we shall find, (as will be more fully shewn,) that the sum allotted in the foregoing table would keep on foot scarcely 300,000 men: so that, were France at peace, and prevented from quartering her troops on her neighbours, her army would necessarily be reduced to that number. An acknowlegement to that effect actually escaped a government-writer who figures in the Moniteur of 21st January 1808. Not a year, says Sir Francis, has elapsed since *Bonaparte*'s usurpation, in which his expenditure has not exceeded his regular revenue by a sum between *ten and twelve millions sterling*; a deficiency which has hitherto been covered by exactions from foreign states, and by concealed loans at home. The magnitude of the total sum is carefully kept out of sight, in order to convey to the world the idea of ease with respect to financial matters. With a similar view, large sums are said to be annually afforded by government for the embellishments of Paris, and for the improvement of inland-navigation, without making any acknowlegement that the funds for this expenditure are chiefly supplied by local contributions *.

The first *item* in the above account of the public expenditure is the interest of the national debt; and this must be understood of the new debt only, for the old debt has wholly disappeared: the history of which is sufficiently remarkable to deserve particular mention. If, in the first place, we go back to the state of this debt in 1802, we find one of our countrymen, who visited Paris, giving the following curious account of it †:

"No interest has been paid on the funded debt of France since the Revolution. At present, any person holding, for instance, 300*l.* stock under the old government, is obliged to accept one-third, namely, 100*l.* stock, which pays an interest from the 21st March 1798 up to 21st March 1800, in paper called *bons*, worth, at an average, 50 per cent. in cash, all arrears of interest previous to 1798 being entirely cut off. The interest accruing since 21st March 1800 is payable in cash. Whatever the stock is, the original

* See our review of Faber, Vol. lxv. p. 307. and 385.

† Journal of a Party of Pleasure to Paris in August 1802.

contract

contract must be given up before entitling the holder to these terms."

With regard to private debts, the same traveller adds:

"It so happened that I had a claim to make for monies acknowleged by Monsieur Perregaux, to be in his hands in the year 1792: for instance, the sum of 500*l.* This sum I fully expected to receive, and was told that I might do so, but that it was in assignats, and not worth more than two shillings and eight-pence. M. Perregaux, as well as other people, is in possession of immense quantities of this paper, all marked with the names to whom it belongs. It was received during the dreadful day of Robespierre, when every one was obliged to take those assignats on pain of death."

Such was the condition of old debts, public and private, in 1802. It deserves to be kept in mind that the stock so promptly cut down by two-thirds was not altogether the property of old claimants. Sixteen millions sterling were arrears of military and naval pay, which accrued in the years 1795, 6, and 7, after the extinction of the assignats; and not less than twenty millions were the proceeds of mercantile captures, which the government had, by some means, contrived to *borrow* from the owners of privateers. Another charge equally sacred was the public debt of the Austrian Netherlands, as well as of the departments near the Rhine, all of which the French government took on itself to pay. One of *Bonaparte's* earliest measures was to appoint, with great solemnity, a "general board of liquidation, to receive the claims of all applicants:" which was done at a time when popularity was essential to him; and the labours of this board seemed to relax exactly in proportion as his power became consolidated. Will it be believed that, out of claims amounting to two hundred millions sterling, the French government never paid one-fiftieth part? Whenever a demand was made, the liquidation-board found means to start so many objections and difficulties, year after year, that the most judicious of the public creditors totally gave up the prosecution of their claims. At last, forth came an imperial decree in 1808, declaring that the labours of the board were at an end, and that the claims made on government were inadmissible *en masse*: yet so completely by this time were the hopes of the public creditors extinguished, that this sweeping condemnation excited no sensation; and the existence of this most extraordinary decree is hardly known out of France.

The whole of the new taxes imposed in France during the nine years of the present war may be computed to yield nearly ten millions annually. They consist chiefly in an augmentation of the former duties on salt, tobacco, and other

exciseable articles; and, in a small degree, in a participation, to the extent of a tenth, of the town-dues levied on provisions brought to market, — than which a more impolitic impost cannot possibly be imagined. The whole produce of French taxation for the following years appears to have been

1803. -	£.25,000,000 Sterl.	1807. -	£.29,000,000 Sterl.
1804. -	31,000,000	1808. -	31,000,000
1805. -	27,000,000	1809. -	31,500,000
1806. -	28,000,000	1810. -	32,000,000

This is considerably below Mr. Walsh's estimate (see our Review, Vol. lxi. p. 304.): but the accuracy of Sir Francis's statement can scarcely be questioned, since it is copied from the French accounts; and Mr. Walsh seems much more of an orator than a calculator. Now, however, that Holland and the departments to the eastward are incorporated with France, the table of ways and means, as well as that of expenditure, is considerably increased; and, instead of thirty-two millions, we have now thirty-eight millions on each side of the account, as appears by the following abstract of

The French Budget for 1811.

	Sterling.
Total of direct taxes, comprizing the land-tax, the tax on moveables, on doors and windows, and on the exercise of professions -	£.12,240,000
Stamps, forests, and national domains - -	8,500,000
Excise, viz. on liquors, tobacco, carriages, cards, &c.	4,900,000
Customs - - - - -	3,000,000
Salt-tax, 1*d. per lb.* - - - -	1,800,000
Extraordinary receipts - - - -	800,000
Lottery - - - - -	720,000
Post-office - - - - -	500,000
Duty on tobacco and salt beyond the Alps -	320,000
Salt-tax in the eastern district - -	120,000
Gunpowder and saltpetre manufactories -	20,000
Coinage - - - -	80,000
Revenue from Holland, (out of which the French government has to pay the interest of the national debt,) - - - -	2,200,000
Ditto from Hamburgh, and the three new departments - - - -	800,000
Ditto from Illyria - - -	400,000
Conscript-fines, and other miscellaneous receipts	580,000
Tribute from Italy, £.100,000 a month, (the French government undertaking to pay its troops there,) - - -	1,200,000
	38,180,000

If to this amount we make a suitable addition for the town-dues on provisions, and the heavy expence of collecting the taxes, we shall find that the whole of the sum annually raised from the French people and the new departments may be put down at forty-five millions sterling; making about twenty-three shillings a-head. Accustomed as we are in this country to accomplish the receipt of our revenue at an expence of four per cent., we may well be startled at the fifteen or sixteen per cent. which are wasted for the same purpose in France: but this is not the worst of it: above two hundred thousand men in the vigour of life are occupied in this invidious duty, and lost to the purposes of productive industry. Large as is the population of France, the abstraction of so great a number from useful labour, joined to the incessant drain of the army, tends to justify Sir F. D'IVERNOIS' favourite opinion that the resources of France have been on the decrease during the war, and that the recent augmentation of revenue proceeds merely from an accumulation of fresh taxes. The absurd decrees against foreign trade have greatly accelerated this decline, and appear to have produced a falling off in those departments of taxation in which it was least to be expected: not merely in such branches as the post-office, but in the dues of inland navigation and the local taxes on provisions. This deficiency has been particularly apparent in the *droit des patentes*, or tax on professions; a most comprehensive impost, which forms a yearly demand on all bankers, merchants, manufacturers, shopkeepers, lawyers, painters, players, — in short, on all trades and professions, except farmers, ecclesiastics, and public officers. This singular duty produced, in the beginning of the present war, 900,000*l.* sterling a-year, but is now cut down to 640,000*l.* Another article of French taxation is calculated to suggest a curious comparison. The stillness of the French roads has often been contrasted with the bustle exhibited in our own: but we were scarcely prepared to reckon the receipts at the turnpike of Hyde-park-corner as nearly equal to a ten per cent. duty on the amount of inland-carriage throughout the roads of the French empire. Yet it seems to be a fact that the proceeds of that duty are only 21,000*l.* sterling, while those of Hyde-park turnpike are 17,000*l.* The tax produced from river and canal carriage in France is more respectable; amounting, on an average, to 160,000*l.* sterling annually.

Bonaparte has cautiously avoided to introduce into his budget either the money raised at home by secret loans, or that which is received in the shape of tribute from abroad. Such supplies are on several accounts unfit for the public eye, and their

precarious nature affords reason enough to exclude them from a list in which no pains are spared to convey the idea of stability and progressive increase. Hence the necessity of sinking a part of the army-expence, that the public may remain unacquainted with the excess of the expenditure above the regular income. Sir Francis has made an attempt (p. 99.) to compute the amount of foreign contributions levied during the last six years; and in one way or another, in money, clothing, victualling, &c., he calculates the total at an average of ten millions sterling. The particular sums exacted from each country are kept secret: but it is believed that the amount payable by Austria, on the conclusion of the treaty of Presburg, (January 1806,) was four millions sterling, and, on the more recent treaty of 1809, about three millions and a half. The King of Prussia's tribute formed, it is believed, a sum of five millions; and at the conferences of Erfurth, he is reported to have obtained a prolongation of the period fixed for its payment. Three years' time, it is said, was then granted him to make out the successive instalments; and the circumstance is sufficiently probable, because it was on that occasion *Bonaparte's* interest to conciliate the powers of the North, and to pour the mass of his force into Spain. Add to these sums a large contribution from Dantzic, in return for her nominal independence, and four millions of American property seized by the Rambouillet decree. The most important remark to be made on such receipts as these is that they are all of a temporary nature, and appear by this time to have reached their termination in Germany by a natural course, as much as by a violent one in Spain and Portugal. Holland and Italy remain to France: but of their tribute the extent is limited, and full credit is taken for it in the "Ways and Means." Westphalia also remains: but both its population and its resources are too inconsiderable to attract much attention. It follows from all these circumstances that *Bonaparte's* pecuniary resources have of late undergone a notable diminution; and that the enormous expence of the war in Spain is likely to prove too much for him. It happens rather singularly in support of this suspicion, that, in one of his latest creations, (we mean the Order of Union, instituted at Amsterdam in October 1811,) the honour of the title forms almost the sole advantage; and the pecuniary appropriations are so wonderfully moderate as to yield less than two pounds a-year to each of the twelve thousand individuals who compose it: a sad falling off from the tantalizing precedent of the Legion of Honour.

II. The Conscription is a prominent object of Sir Francis's animadversions; and he has our full concurrence in all that he says against it: for in truth it would be difficult to arraign it too severely on the score either of impolicy or inhumanity. It takes place, as is well known, by drawing lots at the age of sixteen or seventeen; and the unavoidable effect of such a plan is to keep the parents of the youth in complete uncertainty till that age. *Bonaparte* seems to be unconscious of the discouragement of industry and of education, which is inseparable from the state of doubt so long suspended over the heads of youth; or of the severe loss to the public in hurrying indiscriminately into the field those who afford the promise of becoming its brightest ornaments in the arts of peace. In other armies, a large proportion may be said to consist of those who are unfit for the tranquil occupations of settled industry; in France, they are the flower of the nation. Heavy as the loss is of those who fall in the field, it is inferior to the almost incalculable mischief produced by the neglect of education. It is true that the law promises that the conscript shall have liberty to return home after five years of military service: but, during the war, this promise is suspended; and were it otherwise, it may well be asked, for what exertion in civil life can a young man be fitted after such a career? *Bonaparte* has also studiously thrown difficulty in the way of procuring substitutes. Not only is the election wholly uncertain till the lots are drawn, but the prohibition to go out of the particular district in quest of substitutes makes the range of choice so narrow, that the premium has been on the rise every year, and at present commonly amounts to 200*l.* sterling; a sum which, in France is decidedly beyond the means of the majority of the middle class. Had the engagement of substitutes been open throughout the kingdom, as it is in this country, the current premium would seldom have exceeded 25*l.* sterling: but *Bonaparte*'s notion seems to be to make all his subjects soldiers, and to procure consequence to the lowest description of military service by drawing into it the members of respectable families. It may be adduced, says Sir Francis, as an affecting proof of his success in the attainment of that object, that the medical schools were emptied of their youth previously to the battle of Marengo; and that the law-classes poured forth their students to be present and to perish in the fatal field of Eylau. The decree (December 1810) for levying 40,000 boys, to be trained to the naval service, excited the most distressing complaints among the unhappy mothers of families; who pronounced it to be still more cruel than the sanguinary edicts of *Robespierre*. As long as a hope of speedy peace remained, the evils of the conscription were borne in silence: but, since the

Spanish war, the conduct of government has been the subject of the murmurs and execrations of both sexes. "In the midst of these sorrows and alarms," says the prefect of the department of Gers, "the men are afraid to become husbands, or, if married, to become fathers. A similar terror has seized the other sex. The consequence has been that some have renounced altogether the idea of a conjugal union; while others have been known to try expedients, revolting to morality, to stifle in the conception the fruit of the womb!"

Among the endless falsehoods of the French government, the misrepresentation of the numbers raised by the conscription deserves particular notice. Exaggeration is their policy in many things, but in this the case is otherwise. Till within a year or two, the sanction of the senate was given to the levy of 80,000 men only, yet the Emperor found means (as his minister declared, 18th September 1809) to raise 102,500. This was accomplished by conniving at the escape of many of the youths who were drawn in the first instance, which authorizes a repetition of the drawing: then, but not sooner, every exertion is made to apprehend the early runaways; and *Bonaparte*'s rule being to keep all, the number raised is thus made to exceed considerably the number prescribed. "If the war," said M. *Fionvelle* in 1804, a time at which the press was not so completely shackled as it is now, "if the war continue during ten years, and the conscription enforce its blind sway, we shall be astonished, at the end of that period, by the blank existing in our population, as well as by the restless habits of those of our conscripts who may have survived the horrors of war. Unfit for useful labour, they will become a public burden, and will extort allowances from the nation at the time that they can least be afforded." It seems scarcely to be doubtful that it would be more politic, and perhaps not so cruel, to mark the objects of the conscription from their early years; since the parents would then know how to adapt their education to their intended profession.

Notwithstanding the magnitude of the numbers levied by the conscription, the aggregate of effective force at *Bonaparte*'s disposal is much smaller than it is commonly imagined. In this opinion, we shall be confirmed by a reference to the valuable work which we lately reviewed, respecting the Revolutionary war of 1792, 1793, and 1794.* Ever since the year 1795, the æra when the paper-money of France lost its magic virtues, their armies have ceased to present those overwhelming masses which were brought into the field in 1794; and if we estimate their effective force at 400,000 men, with temporary additions

* See M. Rev. Vol. lxvii. *Appx.* p. 449.

from

from the particular occasions on which the conscripts joined their battalions, we shall probably not be far from the truth. At the time of voting *Bonaparte* Emperor, (May 1804,) the collective suffrages of the army and navy were reported at 450,000. This was not a moment to diminish their ostensible amount; and it is remarkable that, in late years, much caution has been used in concealing their actual numbers. "The Emperor's force admits not of being numbered, nor his treasures of being counted," says the minister of public worship in his circular address of 20th March 1807, — "the devoted attachment of his subjects multiplies and reproduces them without end." In pursuance of this system of exaggeration, the finance-minister declared in 1809 that the Emperor maintained in arms a force of a million of men. To arrive at a complete refutation of this unblushing falsehood, we need go no farther than an analysis of the war-minister's report of the same year, which shews that the pay-lists indicate less than half the number. While *Bonaparte* was boasting that he had 350,000 men in Spain, we know, from better authority, (Lord Wellington's official letters to his brother, Marquis Wellesley,) that they were short of 200,000, and that of the latter number, "only 125,000 could be considered disposable for service in the field," the rest being sick, wounded, or employed in garrison and escort-duty. The peace with Austria, and the consequent marriage, enabled *Bonaparte* to send considerable reinforcements in 1810; and *Massena* advanced into Portugal, big with hope, and invested with ample authority: but famine, disease, and the sword of the *Guerillas* concurred to thin his ranks, and reduced the French force in the peninsula, at the time of his famous rout, to the computed number of 140,000 effective men. Such was their condition when *Massena*, *Ney*, and the other commanders, were recalled from the scene of their disgrace, and ordered to take their stations in the North. *Bonaparte*, despairing of making an impression on Portugal, and having found the Catalans extremely troublesome, directed his succeeding reinforcements against that quarter, and enabled *Suchet* to effect the capture of Tarragona, Montserrat, and, eventually, of Valencia. It is computed that the arrival of various reinforcements in the course of 1811 again carried the numbers of the French to 180,000; a force with which they do little more than stand their ground, and which, if not augmented by farther supplies, will soon exhibit proofs of rapid diminution. Meantime, the expence of the war in Spain is beyond all former example. As the French dare not send a single vessel to sea, the carriage of all kinds of stores for their troops must take place by land, and frequently on roads so wretched as to admit of no other mode of conveyance than on the backs of mules.

It

It has been computed at Paris that the war in Spain has cost, during the last two years, 40,000*l.* sterling daily; of which, destitute of resources as that country is, more than half must be extracted from the imperial coffers. Well may it be said that it is high time for the appearance of the promised *coup de tonnerre*, which is "to end (see *Bonaparte*'s speech, 16th June 1811) the struggle in the Peninsula, and to decide this second Punic war."

It is chiefly since 1810 that the financial pressure of the Spanish war has been felt in France. In 1808 and 1809 the stores (*positos*) of corn, the stock of wool, and other merchandise, with the plate in the churches and monasteries, and the contents of the Spanish arsenals, enabled *Bonaparte* to carry on hostilities as he had done in other countries, at little more sacrifice to France than that of lives: but in the latter part of 1809 things began to look differently, and have ever since been going on from bad to worse. In July 1810, a dispatch was intercepted by the lamented *Romana*, in which King Joseph's ambassador at Paris represents Napoleon as complaining that "he had already employed in Spain 400,000 soldiers, and a sum of eight millions sterling; while the spoliation of the churches and convents had yielded nothing adequate to expectation." Every season has since added to the exhaustion of Spain, and to her consequent inability for defraying any considerable part of the expenditure of the French army. The sickness and mortality, too, among the troops, is from various causes so serious, that Sir Francis is probably justified in the calculation that a fourth part of the whole French force in Spain is put *hors de combat* in the course of every year. That this is no exaggeration appears but too likely from the incessant decrease in our own numbers, though our men are much better fed, better clothed, and, above all, better attended in the hospitals than the French. From all these *data*, Sir Francis draws the conclusion, (p. 176.) that the loss of the French armies, by death, desertion, and invaliding, is such as to require the whole conscription (now 120,000 men annually) to keep up its numbers to 400,000. He infers also that the annual expences of the war-department, including the ordnance, the garrison, and the pensioners, will exceed, during the continuance of hostilities, the rate of 15,000 livres a man; forming, for the whole 400,000, a sum of 24,000,000*l.* sterling. From this sum, as paid out of the French coffers, we are to deduct only the proportion afforded, in the shape of provisions, by the vassal states of Germany on whom Napoleon's troops are quartered. While treating of the expence of the army, it deserves to be mentioned, that the French troops have of late been in the habit of consenting to put off the demand of pay till the

the end of a campaign; an arrangement which, among other recommendations, has that of saving to the state the arrears of the killed: no demands being regarded from such humble claimants as the representatives of privates and non-commissioned officers.

III. After this exposition of the numbers and expence of the French army, Sir F. D'Ivernois proceeds to investigate the Internal Resources of France, and to inquire what means she possesses for supplying a defalcation in her receipts from abroad. Paper-money, since the æra of the assignats, is held in such horror by the French, and their dread of *Bonaparte*'s resorting to it is so great, that he finds it necessary to calm their fears by an annual declaration that he "considers paper not convertible into cash as the greatest scourge which can afflict a country." "Never during my reign (he says, 6th March 1806,) shall recourse be had to paper-currency." Of late years, and particularly since the Berlin and Milan decrees, Paris has become the centre of the great commercial transactions of France; and the rise or fall of her Bank-discounts may be consulted as a kind of commercial barometer. In the year 1810, during the first half of which, at least, the freedom of trade was permitted, the aggregate of discounts at the Bank of Paris amounted to thirty millions sterling: but, in the last year, when *Bonaparte* chose to enforce his violent restrictions, they fell to sixteen millions. It appears, however, that the amount of their circulation has not, in Paris, undergone a correspondent diminution; the holders of bank-paper having confidence that, whatever may be destined to happen, they will hear of it time enough to be able to obtain cash for their notes. In provincial towns, the case is different. There, no one is certain that to-morrow's post may not bring intelligence that the Emperor has forcibly borrowed, as in 1805, the cash of the Bank, and been the means of reducing their paper to a discount. Accordingly, the profits of the provincial banks, established as branches of the Paris-bank, are extremely trifling; not but that the provincial merchants are glad to embrace the opportunity of obtaining money for their bills at so low an interest as four per cent., ($\frac{1}{3}$ per cent. a month,) but their plan is to take this money in notes merely to bring it back and exchange it in a few days for cash. The consequence is that, though the provincial discounts are considerable, the bank-profits are very trifling. Who in this country would believe that, in so large and populous a city as Lyons, the bank-profits in 1810 were no more than 7,000*l.* sterling, and that in the next year they fell so low as 1600*l.*? The branch at Rouen is in the same hopeful way; and that of Lisle has not yet rendered a farthing of profit to the parent-bank. It was an unpardonable error

error in *Bonaparte* to invest himself with the right of appointing the governor of the Bank of Paris and his two substitutes; a power which tends to keep the public in constant apprehension of some secret project to their disadvantage. The present circulation of the Bank of Paris is between five and six millions sterling; and such is the rarity of good bills of exchange, that their rate of discount has been reduced successively from six to five and even to four per cent.: this, too, at a time when the interest on a permanent loan of money is twice as high as with us. No complaints are made by the Bank at Paris of loss by bad bills: it is the general stagnation of business that has led to the great reduction of the demands for discount.

It is amusing to trace the different expedients adopted by *Bonaparte* to borrow money from his subjects. All public bodies possessed of property in their corporate capacity have been invited, or rather ordered, to invest it in his five per cent. stock. It is thus that the Senate and Legion of Honour have disposed of their property, and are intitled to a yearly interest of four hundred thousand pounds. Hospitals and seminaries of education are in the same predicament, epecially those of the conquered departments; the object of all which is to give the different parties an interest in the stability of the present government. *Bonaparte*'s new *noblesse*, likewise, have been enjoined to deposit a tenth of their titular properties (*majorats*) in the public funds: but whether they are less wealthy than report has stated them, or from whatever cause, their collective investments do not yet exceed 25,000*l.* sterling. The history of his sinking fund affords a striking proof of the incompatibility of public credit with the existence of a despotic government. In 1800 he promised to appropriate to this purpose the whole revenue of the Post-Office, to which he afterward made very ample additions from the stamp-duties, and the annual extinction of the life-rents: but this fair promise was of short duration: one pressure followed another; and while, on the one hand, the specified funds were in part intercepted, those which remained were frequently diverted to a different purpose. Instead of applying the government-money to the extinction of the debt, the Board, which was appointed to manage the sinking fund, became agents for raising supplies to the treasury by the sale of stock to the public. They appear to have done all kinds of business except their own; for in respect to liquidation, the sum of their labours, during the long period of eleven years, has gone no farther than the payment of a million sterling. The accounts of this board are by no means kept in so clear a manner as those of the ministry of finance. It is also used by *Bonaparte* as a temporary deposit for that kind of property which it suits his policy to hold out

the prospect of restoring; as, for example, that of the Duke *del Infantado*, and other proscribed Spaniards. The Americans were at first deluded with the idea that the large confiscations by the Rambouillet decree would be invested in the sinking-fund: but its subsequent accounts having made no mention of their being thus placed, it may be taken for granted that they have passed into the Emperor's "extraordinary domain," and are lost for ever to the lawful owners.

Could any thing be gained by declaring a national bankruptcy, we may be abundantly certain that Napoleon would not long delay it: but this resource is at an end. The old debt, as already mentioned, was swept off four years ago; and the new debt is of such a nature as to be interwoven with the existence of his government. To cancel the eight millions of stock, held by the Senate and Legion of Honour, would be to sap the foundations of his throne. The rest of the stock is the property of too numerous a class of persons (above 300,000) to make it advisable to meddle with them: since to strip them of their property, would be, in other words, to fill the poor-house, and reduce the productive effect of his taxes. His experience in the case of Holland has shewn him how things in finance depend on each other, and has taught him that to extinguish national debt is to give a death-blow to revenue. All that he now draws of *clear income* from the Seven Provinces is 1,300,000*l.* annually; a sum considerably less than that which he might have extracted from them in the shape of troops, ships, or tribute, had he consented to leave them their independence, nominal as it was. Of all his financial miscalculations, however, that which regards the Peninsula is the most extraordinary. His war in that quarter has converted a yearly subsidy of three millions sterling into a yearly drain of much more. Supposing, for the sake of argument, that he obtains military possession of the whole country, and, we will even add, supposing that his brother be recognized (however improbable) as its sovereign at a peace, the subsidy paid in *Bonaparte*'s more fortunate years is gone for ever. It came, in chief part, from the Trans-atlantic colonies; and the act, which attempted to make Joseph or Napoleon the ruler of Spain, established a lasting separation between the mother-country and her American settlements. To redeem what he has lost, and to extract again a revenue from Mexico and Peru, it will not be enough for this mighty Emperor "to plant his eagles in Cadiz, or even on the forts of Lisbon;" he must learn also to reverse the fate of maritime war, and to make us fight our naval battles in a new style. It will be incumbent on his Admirals to take nineteen sail of British ships at a second battle of Trafalgar, and,

to

to try the experiment of breaking our line off the heights of Camperdown.

Every fresh discovery has a tendency to shew that, could our countrymen be brought to view in a proper light their own strength and the weakness of France as to maritime operations, they might save themselves a great portion of anxiety and expence. *Bonaparte* announced (5th December 1810) that "he had prepared the plan of a grand canal to be executed in the course of five years, and to join the Baltic to the Seine." "Indemnities," he adds, "shall be granted to the princes who may incur injury by the execution of this great and necessary measure, which supports on the Baltic the right of the frontiers of my empire." All this wears the appearance of deliberate intention, and is fitted to strike awe into a confiding public; yet it is, after all, nothing better than a flourish. This canal is in no degree of forwardness, and will no more be executed than that which was to unite, in 1807, the Mediterranean and the Adriatic by penetrating the Appennines. Every year, his official *Exposés* teem with projects of improving inland-navigation, and with assertions that it is actually improved; though the fact, (says Sir Francis, p. 247.) is that only three canals have been extended at the public expence, viz. that of St. Quentin; that of the north, which has been abandoned since the incorporation of Holland; and that of the Ourcq, which is useful chiefly as an ornament to Paris. "Canals," says *Bonaparte*, "are the great desiderata of France;" yet all that he bestows on them (p. 252.) is 25,000*l.* a year. The insignificance of this sum forms a remarkable contrast to the lavish expenditure for the embellishment of Paris; the cost of which, for one year, is computed in the last *Exposé* at 900,000*l.* sterling. Though in this, as in other things, a delusion exists, so far at least that the chief part of this sum is indirectly extracted from the pockets of the Parisians themselves, our attention should be principally fixed on the superficial and capricious turn which it exhibits in the nation. While rows of useful and valuable buildings have been demolished along the borders of the Seine, without exciting in the French any other sensation than admiration of the improvement thus produced in the appearance of the banks of the river, an obelisk of 180 feet in height is erected on the level of the *Pont-neuf*; and the spectators never think of adverting to the contrast between this wasteful expenditure in the capital and the lamentable penury of the provinces. Napoleon's object in all this is to gratify the national vanity, and to assume to the world the appearance of a well-replenished treasury.

Among

Among other documents, collected by *Bonaparte*'s order, we are presented by Sir Francis (p. 278.) with a "Table of the mineral, vegetable, and animal produce of the empire, with the number of persons employed in different mines, manufactories, and other occupations." Of this curious catalogue, which seems to apply to the year 1807, the most remarkable particulars are contained in the following list:

	Workmen employed.	Value of yearly Produce.
Marble quarries	4,200	£28,000 sterl.
Salt works of all kinds	5,200	1,100,000
Iron mines and works	160,000	4,000,000
Turf-works	6,000	40,000
Coal and culm-works	70,000	2,000,000
Gypsum	2,500	190,000
Glass-works, coarse and fine	6,500	650,000
Porcelain	2,700	600,000
Clocks and watches	9,000	1,150,000
Plate and jewellery	7,600	4,000,000
Gilding	2,800	700,000
Cotton thread	57,500	3,500,000
Muslins, calicoes, and other cotton-manufactures	141,000	4,300,000
Hempen manufactures	143,000	2,250,000
Linen ditto	55,000	650,000
Paper ditto	8,500	820,000
Brewery	6,200	900,000
Distillery	1,500	1,750,000
Sugar-refining	900	400,000
Tobacco and snuff	3,600	1,000,000
Ebony-manufactures	13,000	440,000
Printing and engraving	13,000	70,000
Silk-thread-manufactures	43,000	1,460,000
—— stuffs, gauzes, and crapes	87,000	2,000,000
—— ribbands	11,000	630,000
—— bonnets	24,000	580,000
Woollen manufactures, coarse and fine	516,000	8,500,000
Carpets	670	27,000
Tanning, tawing, and gloving	12,700	2,400,000
Hat-making	16,500	770,000
Coach-making and sadlery	10,000	300,000

The total annual value of the produce of the mines and manufactures of France appears to be between fifty and sixty millions sterling; a sum which, as far as figures go, is inferior to the annual amount not merely of what we in this country

produce, but of what we export. In the valuation of our exports, as duty is to be paid on the amount, it is common for our merchants to reduce the estimate as far as it can be done with safety to themselves in the event of seizure; so that on that score we may safely add a seventh part (eight or nine millions) to the custom-house declaration. No such deduction appears applicable to this French catalogue; the probability being that, to gratify individual vanity, the returns would be made in full: but how far, it may be asked, does the difference in the value of money affect the question? Supposing money to be of twice the value in France as in England, the same sum, whether earned from the above-mentioned sources or from others, will go twice as far in the purchase of the necessaries of life: it will pay and support twice as many persons: in consequence, it is, in a political light, of double importance. Yet, even with this allowance, the attentive observer, who knows that our exports form a smaller proportion to the whole produce of our mines and manufactures than they are generally believed, will be disposed to pronounce that the mines and manufactures of France are at a low ebb, on being informed that their collective returns are only double the amount of our surplus-produce.

The frivolity and extravagance of the French taste is strongly exemplified in the great amount of their "plate and jewellery," as well as in that of the "ebony-manufacture." The extent of the latter forms a contrast to the smallness of printing-business which cannot prove flattering to the vanity of French authors; while the moderate limits of their "brewing," compared to ours, will startle those of our countrymen who regard a liberal allowance of ale and porter as a first-rate ingredient in the comforts of this lower world. On the other hand, the great extent of their silk-manufactures affords a proof that to aim at competition with them in that respect is a contest *viribus impariibus* on our part. No report is made of the number of families employed in agriculture, but their proportion to the whole population is much greater in France than in England; where it appears, by our last returns, that they are little more than a third of the whole.

The ignorance of the French with regard to the English finances is amusing. *Bonaparte* has openly declared that we can no longer carry on the war without making an annual loan of *thirty-two millions sterling*; and because it is the rule in our budget to omit both the interest of our national debt and the sum appropriated (out of the consolidated fund) to its payment, he suspects us of a cunning contrivance to keep the debt out of sight altogether. This is much on a par with the knowlege of

of the French nobleman, who, on haranguing after the peace of 1763 on the customs of our metropolis, declared, with all imaginable gravity, *qu'on y soupait, mais qu'on n'y dinait pas.* A gentleman of later date, M. *Sabatier*, in writing on the subject of our finances, confounds the sinking-fund with the surplus of the consolidated fund, and thus exclaims against our incurable irregularity in bringing forwards first one sum and then another. M. *Anquetil*, one of the most respectable French writers, in treating of the early tumults of the French Revolution, and of the share which the Duke of Orleans took in them, has the following passage:

"He is said to have applied to this purpose the greatest part of his immense property. He is suspected also of having received money from England to distribute among the populace; and this suspicion is changed into certainty when we recollect that, at the epoch of the beginning of our troubles, Mr. Pitt obtained from Parliament a million sterling *for which he was not to be bound to account.*"

This mysterious million proves, on examination, to be no other than the vote of credit for the year 1790, granted on occasion of the Nootka-Sound business; and had M. *Anquetil* taken the trouble of referring to the papers of the session 1791, he would have seen the whole very punctually brought to account in the expenditure of the army, navy, and ordnance. From this general ignorance on the part of Frenchmen, Sir Francis makes two exceptions. The first is M. *de Guer;* who, during his emigration in this country, acquired a considerable knowlege of our finances, and was the first to explain to the French that the true way of calculating the comparative pressure of taxes in different countries is to take, not the amount of taxes imposed on the individual, but the income remaining to him after having accomplished the payment of his taxes.—The other exception is M. *Ganilh*, a lawyer and a well-known writer on political economy, whose labours will engage our attention at a future opportunity. These gentlemen are abundantly capable, if they dared to speak out, of informing *Bonaparte* of the futility of his efforts against our commerce; and of instructing him that the only true way of augmenting his own revenue is to give complete freedom to trade, and to lower such of his duties as are exorbitant.

'How great,' says Sir Francis, 'will be *Bonaparte*'s punishment, if he is ever made to comprehend *Turgot*'s doctrine on the true method of governing an empire; or, what will he say to all his prohibitions of foreign commerce, if he merely arrives at understanding the following plain remark of Dr. Smith? "It is the maxim of every prudent master of a family never to attempt to make at home that which

it will cost him more to make than to buy. . . . What is prudence in the conduct of every private family, can scarcely be folly in that of a great kingdom." '

It deserves our attention that *Bonaparte*, in his military estimates, makes no reference to the national guards or militia of France. The fact is that this corps, so numerous during the fervour of the Revolution, is no longer in existence; being, from the nature of its composition, by no means suited to a despotic ruler. He discouraged the temporary levy made in 1809 for the defence of Antwerp; and 'if he at any future time (says Sir Francis, p. 164.) gives to a corps the name of national guards, we may be assured that it will be a fresh levy of conscripts, invested with this title for the sake of creating a belief that he has no intention of sending them beyond the Rhine or the Pyrenees.' — All *Bonaparte*'s arrangements proceed on the plain calculation of augmenting and confirming his own power. A nobility, invested with fortune, as well as with hereditary titles, appeared to him fitted to give stability to his throne: but he delayed the creation till his foreign conquests enabled him to provide incomes for them without making deductions from his own revenue. After his successes in 1805 and 1806, a portion of the public domains and revenue in Italy was appropriated to that purpose. In 1807 a farther creation of titles was announced; and, in March 1808, a decree came forth, investing with the rank of count, his archbishops, senators, ministers, and state-counsellors, in a mass; — with that of baron, his bishops, the presidents of his imperial courts, and the mayors of thirty-seven cities; — while the title of *Chevalier* was conferred on all the members of the Legion of Honour. This was the memorable month in which he declared himself the regenerator of Spain; and there can be little doubt from so remarkable a coincidence, that, had all happened to his wish, his plan was to make as liberal a provision for his followers from the Peninsula as from Italy.

We are now reminded that it is time to bring our observations on Sir Francis's publication to a close. Though he is clearer than many other writers on finance, through whose productions reviewers are doomed to travel, much room is still left for his attaining, by a more attentive arrangement, the praise of greater perspicuity. Besides a considerable retrenchment of words as well as of matter, the book would be improved by classing various passages under more appropriate heads. Sir Francis acknowleges (p. 300.) that he has written in haste, and has thrown into the loose form of notes a great portion of matter which should have been incorporated with the

the text. In addition, we must notice that he discovers so much eagerness to exalt our resources above those of France, as altogether to lose sight of that very important point, the difference in the relative value of money. In his comparative statements, pound is opposed to pound without any remark or admission that, in the one country, ten shillings are as effectual in rewarding labour, or in procuring the means of support, as twenty shillings in the other. It is fit also to advert to the occurrence of some typographical errors; the effect of which, in one instance, (p. 284.) is of serious consequence, as it leads the author to estimate the produce of the French mines and manufactories eight millions below their real amount. He might have spared, too, a part of the long argument (from p. 106. to 128.) in vindication of the accuracy of his former opinions. Those who, like Sir Francis, have become *old stagers* in political debate, may save themselves the trouble of recording special answers to the various objections made to their representations.—With these observations, and with the caution which we suggested at the beginning of this article, we may venture to recommend the present book to the perusal of our readers. The inquirers into financial topics will find here much that is not to be obtained elsewhere; and this work, joined to the previous publications of Mr. Walsh *, and Mr. Faber †, may be said, hastily as they have all been composed, to exhibit an ample picture of the singular and unprecedented situation of the French empire.

We conclude our report by a few remarks on the recent occurrences on the Continent. If Sir Francis found reason to speak the language of hope in the last spring, it may fairly be exchanged for the language of confidence since the total disappointment of *Bonaparte*'s projects on Russia. Spain was in former years, and Prussia more recently, a storehouse for the supply of the French military establishments. If these countries do not now become independent, the fault must lie wholly with their own governments. Poland, though not hostile to France in point of popular feeling, is a scene of action decidedly favourable to the Russians from its vicinity to their resources; so that a perseverance in the war offers to *Bonaparte* little else than a sacrifice of lives and an exhaustion of treasure. The true lesson to be drawn from Sir F. D'IVERNOIS' book is that we have all been too much afraid of *Bonaparte*'s power. His control over his neighbours is found, like other systems of compulsion, to threaten a fall as soon as the prospect of a free

* Monthly Review, N. S. Vol. lxi. p. 299.
† Ibid. Vol. lxv. p. 307. 385.

course is opened to the subordinate members of the political assemblage. Nearly five years have now passed since the director of this fabric committed the grand *faux pas* of losing his character in the face of all the world; and the last campaign has given an irreparable wound to his military reputation. Russia has shewn that her strength, when judiciously directed, is such as to bid defiance to foreign invasion, and to throw ridicule on the notion of subjugating Europe: circumstances which, we hope, will render our countrymen less afraid to think of peace with France, and less easily influenced by those candidates for popularity who profess to see no safety but in war.

ART. VIII. *Mémoires de la Classe des Sciences Mathématiques*, &c. *i. e.* Memoirs of the Class of Mathematical and Physical Sciences in the National Institute of France. Vols. VII. VIII. IX. X., for 1806, 7, 8, and 9. 4to. Boards. Paris. Imported by De Boffe.

So difficult and tardy is the communication between this country and France, that we have only a short time since received these volumes of the Memoirs of the Institute, although the first of them was printed six years ago. Our readers will observe that it is only in the class of Mathematical and Physical Sciences that we are now furnished with the labours of the Institute; and we believe that in the former classes of *Literature* and the *Moral Sciences* they have been forbidden to continue their exertions. At least, we have not been able to obtain any volumes on those subjects since Vol. V.

Part I. of the Seventh vol. commences, as usual, with an historical section, which opens with literary notices respecting the publications and pursuits of the members, and afterward contains the lives or rather eulogies of such as have died recently or during the preceding year. The history is divided into two parts, the mathematical and the physical, the former drawn up by M. DELAMBRE, the latter by M. CUVIER, secretaries to the Society. It is well written, and must have been acceptable at the time of its publication: but, after so long an interval, part of its interest is lost in this country, because many of the facts have been made known to us by other channels. Some of the topics also are subsequently treated more in detail among the memoirs; and some have since been the subjects of distinct publications. We shall not therefore dwell on this head, but proceed to give some account of the eulogies.

The

The first of these, by M. LACÉPÈDE, relates to M. *Dolomieu*. This distinguished naturalist was born in the year 1750, and, while very young, was admitted into the order of the Knights of Malta. At the age of 18, he became involved in one of those quarrels which, according to the ideas of modern honor, can only be determined by single combat; and he had the misfortune to kill his adversary, an offence which the regulations of his order punished with death. He was therefore detained in prison for nine months, but, through the intercession of powerful friends, he was finally released. During his captivity, his mind was first directed to the study of natural history; and to this pursuit he afterward devoted himself almost exclusively. A considerable part of his future life was occupied in travelling through different countries, for the purpose of observing their mineralogy and geology; and the additions which he made to these sciences must ever be regarded as striking proofs of his genius and his industry. He principally directed his researches to volcanic productions; and with this object he minutely examined Sicily, the south of Italy, and the Lipari isles. He was one of the *sçavans* who attended *Bonaparte* in his expedition to Egypt, but his health obliged him to return to Europe. In this voyage, he was driven by stress of weather into one of the ports of the kingdom of Naples; and, during one of those turbulent revolutions which took place in that country, he was seized by the party opposed to the French, and confined in a loathsome dungeon at Messina; where he remained until the battle of Marengo enabled his master to demand his liberty from the Neapolitans. Shortly after his release, he undertook a long scientific tour through the district of the Alps, in the course of which he was attacked by a fever which proved fatal, in the year 1802. He had an ardent and enterprising mind, and was completely devoted to the interests of science.

Eulogy, by M. CUVIER, on *James Martin Cels*, a botanist who seems to have had the merit of uniting in a remarkable degree the practical with the scientific part of his favourite pursuit. The events of his life were very few and simple; and the writer has digressed considerably into remarks and reflections of a general nature, for the purpose of giving bulk to his memoir. M. *Cels* appears scarcely ever to have written for the press: but as a botanical gardener he possessed great excellence. His private character was marked by a spirit of independence and honesty, which caused him to be highly valued by his friends and colleagues. He was born in 1743, and died in 1806.

A paper of a more interesting nature succeeds, written also by M. CUVIER, containing an account of *Michael Adanson*, well known for his talents as a naturalist; and who possessed a singular union of qualities, which, while it rendered him a better subject for the biographer, tended to diminish his utility and to obscure his abilities. He was born at Aix in 1727: his family was of humble rank: but he was assisted in his education by the Archbishop, who placed him in a situation which permitted his taste for natural history to develope itself. He early attracted the notice of Needham, and acquired from him a taste for the minute examination of objects, which through life was one of his distinguishing traits. When only 21 years of age, he embarked on a scientific voyage for Senegal; and the reason which he gave for choosing that country presents a curious example of the ardent devotion of his mind to the object of his researches. 'He says in a note which remains in one of his papers, this was of all European settlements the most difficult to penetrate, the hottest, the most unhealthy, the most dangerous in all other respects, and consequently the least known by naturalists;'—and there he remained for five years, collecting facts with the greatest diligence, but entirely secluded from books and society. In this situation, the original bent of his mind became confirmed, and he acquired so great a degree of confidence in his own opinions, and so much contempt for those of others, as at length to be reduced to a kind of literary misanthrope. Disregarding the writings of *Linné* and *Buffon*, which at that time engaged the attention and divided the suffrages of all Europe, he planned a general systematic work, of unexampled extent, and evidently beyond the power of any one individual to accomplish. It was designed to consist of '40,000 species, ranged in alphabetical order, in 150 volumes: an universal vocabulary was to give the explanation of 200,000 words; and the whole was to be furnished with a great number of treatises and memoirs on particular subjects, with 40,000 figures, and 30,000 specimens from the three kingdoms.' In the execution of this plan, he became entirely absorbed: he secluded himself from the world; and he withheld from publication a number of most valuable observations on different subjects, in order that he might devote himself solely to his grand work. During the Revolution, he lost his means of subsistence, and was oppressed with the accumulated evils of poverty and old age; yet to the end of his life he persevered in his design, and continued to labour with incessant application. His last request was characteristic of his turn of mind; and we may add that it

was

was one which would not have been made by any but a Frenchman: 'He desired in his will that a wreath of flowers, taken from the 58 families which he had established, should be the only decoration of his coffin.' He died in 1805.

Historical Eulogy of M. Brisson, by M. DELAMBRE.—*Brisson* was born in 1723 at Fontenai, was patronised by *Reaumur* early in life, and acquired from him a taste for natural history, in which he seemed destined to have made great progress. Some differences, however, between him and *Buffon* and *Daubenton*, in which he thought that these gentlemen did not behave to him with sufficient liberality, caused him to renounce this pursuit, and to attach himself to experimental philosophy. He accordingly became associated with the Abbe *Nollet*, and assisted him in his lectures as a professor in the college of Navarre. In the year 1787, *Brisson* published his elaborate treatise on the specific gravity of different metals, a subject on which he bestowed great care, and which occupied his attention for many years. It is from this work that he will be principally known to posterity. (*Obiit*, 1806.)

The last eulogy in Part I., also by M. DELAMBRE, records the life and death of M. *Coulomb*.—He was born in 1736 at Angoulême, and entered early into the military profession, but abandoned it in order to devote himself more completely to mathematical studies, and to those parts of natural philosophy which are most nearly connected with them. His attention became finally directed almost exclusively to the subjects of electricity and magnetism; and to both of these sciences he applied with great assiduity, in order to discover the nature of the subtile fluid which is supposed to produce their operations, and to form hypotheses to account for their phænomena. In electricity he embraced the doctrine of two opposing currents; an opinion once prevalent, but which has been generally discarded, as being less simple and not more satisfactory than the hypothesis which refers the phænomena to the agency of one fluid alone. On magnetism he also adopted an opinion which seems to be complicated, and of course objectionable; viz. that every particle of a magnet was itself an individual magnet, and having its respective poles. He appears to have possessed many private virtues, and to have displayed great industry in the prosecution of science: but he was too fond of forming refined hypotheses, founded on the supposed operation of occult agents, of the existence of which we have not sufficient proof. He died in 1806.

Relation of a Journey made in the Department of the Orne, to ascertain the Reality of a Meteor observed at L'Aigle, the 6th Floréal, Year 11. By M. BIOT.—This memoir furnishes a long,

long, but, as we think, a very interesting history of one of those events which, in late years, have attracted so much attention; viz. a shower of meteoric stones, that fell in May 1803 at L'Aigle, a small town in Normandy. In order that every circumstance respecting it might be perfectly well ascertained and authenticated, M. Biot went to the neighbourhood for the sole purpose of obtaining information from the persons who were witnesses of the event. He has given a minute history of his progress and transactions; and he has stated a series of facts which remove every shadow of doubt as to the reality of the transaction, and are equally satisfactory on most other points connected with it. From a vast number of witnesses, whose testimony coincided in a very remarkable manner, we learn that, about noon, in a clear and serene state of the atmosphere, a small cloud was seen to move with considerable rapidity: a violent explosion, or rather a succession of explosions, together with the appearance of a luminous globe, then proceeded from this cloud, from which was discharged a prodigious quantity of stones of all sizes. Many of the largest were sunken deep into the ground by the force with which they were projected: they were hot, and exhaled an odor of sulphur; and they appear, from several circumstances, to have been much softer or less compact in their texture when they first fell, than they were at the time when M. Biot examined them. The largest stone that was picked up weighed 17¼lbs., and the whole number collected amounted to between two and three thousand. The chemical analysis of these stones agrees nearly with that of the other meteoric stones which have been lately examined, and serves to confirm the evidence of their origin, as likewise of the others which possess a similar constitution.—The paper affords a good specimen of patient philosophical inquiry.

Memoir on the Observations which it is important to make on the Tides in the different Harbours of the Republic. By P. Lévêque.—A commission composed of MM: *Laplace, Rochon,* and the author of this paper, was appointed by the Institute to propose a plan of observations on the tides in the different harbours of France, and this paper contains their report. It may be useful as the basis for their future labors, but in its present state does not contain much information that can interest us.

Having now gone through the *History of the Institute,* we come to the *Memoirs.*

Natural History, Chemistry, Medicine, &c.

Three papers are presented by the celebrated botanist Ventenat, the object of each of which is to establish a new genus

&

of plants. The first of them is one which would formerly have been included under the *Adonis Capensis*, Linn., but M. VENTENAT considers this family to be ill defined, and thinks that he has produced in the garden of Malmaison a flower which is intitled to a distinct appellation. From its analogy to the two genera of *Anemone* and *Adonis*, he names it *Anamenia*. He informs us that it has the flower of the *Adonis*, the fruit of the *Hydrastis*, and the general aspect of the umbelliferous plants. The two other new genera are plants lately brought from New Holland; which, out of respect to the now divorced Empress, who is stated to have been a great patroness of botany, he names *Josephinia*, and by a scientific pun on the word *Bonaparte*, *Calomeria*. Of the accuracy of M. VENTENAT in his characters and classification we cannot doubt, and we believe that these new genera are admitted by botanists.

Researches concerning the Temperature of Water at its Maximum of Density. By Count RUMFORD.—This paper bears strong marks of the peculiar character of the writer; viz. simple but well-contrived experiments, and deductions from them both forcible and ingenious, together with considerable pertinacity of opinion, and something approaching to contempt for the sentiments of those who differ from the author. As the results of the Count's experiments have, we believe, been for some time known in this country, we shall give only a very brief account of them. In order to ascertain whether the density of water be the greatest at the freezing point, or at a few degrees superior, heat was applied to the surface; and, below, a small cork cup was placed, so that, if the particles of water became heavier, they must necessarily fall into it, and be retained there: the remainder of the water was kept at the temperature of melting ice. A thermometer was placed in the centre of the cup, and other thermometers were attached in different places of the apparatus, in order to ascertain the comparative heat of the different parts of the water. The body which communicated the heat was, in the first experiment, at 42°, and the thermometer in the cup indicated the temperature of 36°. When a heat of 60 was applied to the surface, the water was raised to near 40°: but, when a heat of 212° was employed, less effect was produced than in the former experiment. In this case, it was supposed that the water was heated so rapidly, that all the particles passed their state of greatest density before they had time to descend. This reasoning proceeds on the principle that water is not a conductor of heat; an opinion which the author appears to have maintained, notwithstanding the objections that have been urged against it. Though we do not believe it to be true in its utmost

utmost extent, we think that it is so far a matter of fact as not materially to influence the conclusions that are formed in this paper; we do not indeed learn what is the precise degree of the greatest density of water, but it certainly appears to be at some distance above the freezing point.

On the Causes of some Diseases which affect Hatters. By M. TENON.—We have here an ample account of the author's observations on the subject in question; from which it seems that the persons who work at the manufacture of hats in Paris are liable to many severe diseases, which have a very considerable tendency to shorten life. M. TENON's researches are, therefore, very commendable: but we are disposed to believe that the same evils do not occur in the manufacture of hats as it is conducted in this country.

Considerations on the Uterus of a Female at the eighth Month of Gestation. By the Same.—The state and situation of the organ are described at length, and apparently with great accuracy: but we do not perceive that much new information of importance is obtained. If any observation has the merit of novelty, it is that which respects the neck of the uterus; which, 'contrary,' as the author says, 'to the opinion of many celebrated men, does not always begin to shorten at the sixth or seventh month,' since in this case it was longer than in the usual state: so that we are unable, from the inspection of this part, to ascertain the period of pregnancy.

Experiments on the Cercalia and leguminous Seeds, illustrative of the History of Germination and Fermentation. By M. M. FOURCROY and VAUQUELIN.—As this elaborate paper consists of more than 50 quarto pages, we cannot attempt to follow the authors through all their experiments in detail, but shall mention some of the most important conclusions at which they arrived. The first substance on which they operated was the farina of wheat; a part of which, being copiously dissolved by cold water, obtained the property of precipitating galls and the mineral acids. It is strongly disposed to the generation of acid, and by this addition rendered the water more capable of dissolving the remainder of the farina; which contains only a small proportion of saccharine matter.—The next experiments were made on the gluten of wheat; which is very sparingly soluble in cold water: but hot water dissolves it more copiously, and the solution soon becomes putrid. A mixture of sugar and gluten with the proper proportion of water, even when carefully secluded from the atmosphere, was found to produce a strong acetous acid. When gluten putrefies, it appears to be converted into matter of a fatty nature, mixed with a quantity of carbon. The farina of barley differs

from

from that of wheat in containing a ready-formed acid; and from this circumstance water dissolves more of the vegeto-animal matter of barley than of wheat. The water in which the farina of barley has been digested does not exhibit any traces of sugar, yet it readily passes to the acetous fermentation: it, however, contains a substance similar or analogous to the gluten of wheat; and the authors suppose that it is owing to the presence of this substance, that vinegar produced from grain of various kinds is not so good as that which is formed from different vinous liquors: the vegeto-animal matter in the former case remains in fact in the fluid, and is afterward decomposed. Both in the farina and in the bran of barley, they detected a kind of oil, which is soluble in alcohol; and they suppose that it is this oil which gives the peculiar flavor to spirits distilled from barley. The constituents of barley are announced as follows: 'This seed is formed, 1st, of starch; 2d, of a vegeto-animal substance in considerable quantity; 3d, of a green and acrid oil, which unites to alkalies, and forms with them a good soap; 4th, of acetic acid, contained as well as the oil in all parts of the grain; 5th, of sugar; 6th, of the phosphates of lime, magnesia, and iron.' Some experiments were performed more expressly on the oil of barley; and it appears that the process of malting has little or no effect on the quantity or the quality of this substance.

We have next a set of experiments on the farina of beans: they seem to contain a great quantity of the animalized matter; a circumstance which accounts for their tendency to putrefaction. They also contain starch and the phosphoric salts; and a considerable quantity of tan enters into the composition of their skins: no sugar is discoverable in their composition. Lentils were found to include a quantity of animalized matter: but it seems to be more of the nature of albumen than of gluten. The skins of the seeds have in them a green and acrid oil, and a quantity of tan: the oil is also found in the seed itself. The farina of the lupin contains a large quantity of bitter oil; as also the vegeto-animal matter, a considerable proportion of the phosphates of lime and magnesia, and a small quantity of the phosphates of potash and iron: but MM. F. and V. could not detect in lupins either starch or sugar.

After these analytical observations on the constituents of the different seeds, the authors proceed to give the results of some experiments on germination. Portions of seeds were confined in atmospherical air, in hydrogen gas, and were entirely immersed in water. After a certain length of time, the air was examined: it was in all the cases found to contain a large quantity

quantity of carbonic acid; and as this took place when the seeds were confined in hydrogen, it was concluded that both the carbon and the oxygen must have been derived from the seed itself. The experiments on germination, however, are not either very numerous or very interesting.

On the subject of fermentation, the authors observed that, when the seeds of barley, either in their entire state or after the bran was taken from them, were caused to ferment, a quantity of hydrogen was produced, as well as of carbonic acid, but that no hydrogen was procured from the fermentation of wort: it was therefore concluded that the hydrogen is generated from the insoluble part of the grain. Barley, when unmalted, was found to contain about $\frac{13}{100}$ of its weight of sugar; whereas, after malting, it contained as much as $\frac{5}{100}$, or four times the former quantity. It was also found that unmalted barley can produce four times more alcohol than it contains sugar: whereas, when malted, it can only produce three times more alcohol than the sugar which it contains in that state; and consequently it appears that some other constituent besides sugar contributes to fermentation, although sugar is essential to this process. It is remarked that, when fermentation proceeds very slowly, each portion of alcohol, as it is individually formed, is immediately converted into acetous acid; so that vinegar appears to be produced without the intermediate state of spirit. The paper concludes with some experiments on yeast.

Third Part of the Researches on the Laws of Affinity. (See Memoirs of the Institute, Vol. III.) By M. BERTHOLLET.—In his former papers on this subject, the author endeavoured to distinguish between the effects of what he conceives ought strictly to be called chemical affinity, and those which depend on the physical qualities of bodies, such as their state of aggregation, their solubility in water, &c. In the present memoir, his object is to apply the general principles which he has before laid down, to the illustration of particular cases of chemical changes; and likewise to examine the objections which have been urged against the different parts of his doctrine.

He begins by some remarks on the carbonates and sub-carbonates. The relative proportion of acid and alkali in these salts varies extremely, according to the circumstances under which they are formed. M. BERTHOLLET has procured them in what he conceives to be a perfectly neutral state, containing more carbonic acid than any carbonates which have yet been analyzed: but he finds that every intermediate state from this to the common sub-carbonate may be procured. The carbonate of ammoniac is known to differ very much in its compo-

 sition,

sition, according to the temperature at which it is formed, when it is procured from the muriate of ammoniac and carbonate of lime: but, by the aid of pressure, carbonic acid may be made to unite with a solution of the alkali, so as to form a proper neutral compound, in which 100 parts of ammoniac are united to 275 parts of carbonic acid. The author, in like manner, formed a proper neutral carbonate of potash, in which the alkali is to the acid in the proportion of 100 to 91: 100 parts of soda require 140 of carbonic acid to bring them to the perfectly neutral state. The alkaline carbonates are frequently employed as re-agents: but, as it appears that they have been used in the state of variable sub-carbonates, we may conclude that their effects are liable to much uncertainty, and are probably very different from those which would result from the action of the neutral carbonates. These facts are regarded as a strong confirmation of the author's peculiar opinion that chemical action is not limited to a determinate point for every different combination, but that it continues to exert itself until some circumstance occurs which prevents its farther operation. One of the most frequent of these occurrences is the condensation of the compound, so as to render it no longer soluble in water, and thus to cause its precipitation: but, in this case, we frequently find that an additional quantity of one of the ingredients may be added to the compound, and a new substance formed, so as to prove that the precipitation did not depend on the cessation of affinity.

M. BERTHOLLET, in this part of his essay, notices and combats some objections which have been urged against his opinion by M. *Proust*. When a small quantity of an acid is added to a large quantity of an alkali, the latter imagines that each particle of the acid attaches itself to a particle of the alkali, and fully saturates it, leaving the remainder of the alkaline particles in an uncombined state: but M. BERTHOLLET defends the contrary opinion, by stating that it is impossible to add an acid to these supposed alkaline particles, without detaching some of the former acid from the compound. He also deduces some experiments respecting the action of potash on the phosphate of lime; from which it appears that what has been generally considered as the weaker affinity of the potash for the acid overcomes the more powerful affinity of the lime for the acid; whence he infers that the decomposition of the phosphate of potash by lime does not depend on the greater affinity of the phosphoric acid for lime, but on the phosphate of lime being an insoluble salt.

A great variety of attempts have been made to estimate the strength of chemical affinity: but, as these estimates have been deduced

INDEX.

Berington, Mr., his correspondence with Mr. Evans, 325.
Berthollet, M., on the laws of affinity, Part III., 542.
Bethlehem, visited by Dr. Clarke, 128.
Bible, question on the propriety of giving away Bibles without Common-prayer-books, 87—96. 110. 300. 323.
Biot, M., on meteoric stones, in Normandy, 537.
Bonaparte, examination of his conduct as an administrator and a financier, 514—533.
Bonarbashy, account of the springs of, 13.
Bossuet, character and specimen of his eloquence, 456. 460.
Bowden, Rev. Mr, char. of, 466.
Brasil, hist. of, and savage conduct of the natives, 337—350.
Bridaine, the French missionary, character and specimens of his oratory, 456—458. 460.
Brisson, M., eulogy of, 537.
British Isles, on the origin of the inhabitants of, 194.
Buckingham, Marquis of, his measures of reform when Lord Lieutenant of Ireland, 59, 60.
Budget, French, in 1811, 515. 518.
Burke, Mr., his letters to Lord Charlemont, 61, 62, 63. 65. Selected by the Irish Catholics to be their advocate, 65.
Busby, Dr., *factitious* address by, at Drury-lane Theatre, 296.
Byron, Ld., excellent imitation of his poem of Childe Harold, 290.

C

Caerhun, in Caernarvonshire, Roman antiquities there, 196.
Callifat, village and stream of, described, 12.
Calomeria, a new genus of plants, so named in honor of Bonaparte, 539.
Camulodunum, situation of, 198.
Cana of Galilee, account of, 120.
Carew, Mr., on antiquities in Cornwall, 197.
Catherine, Queen, divorced wife of Henry VIII., ceremonial of her funeral, 192.
Catholic-emancipation, discussion of that question, 435—438.
Cavalry, See *Infantry*.
Cels, J. M., eulogy of, 535.
Charlemont, Lord, his correspondence with the Marquis of Rockingham and Mr. Fox, 57. Mr. Burke's letters to, 61, 62, 63. 65. His opposition to the claims of the Irish Catholics explained, 66. His letter on Lord Fitzwilliam's appointment to the Vice-Royalty, *ib.* On the proposition of an Union, 68, 69. His death, and character, 69, 70. His character of Lord Moira as a public speaker, 72.
Charles I., letter from to the Earl of Nottingham, 399.
——— II., his traitorous subserviency to the court of France, 372. His death-bed scene, and open profession of the Catholic religion, 374. That account doubted, 375.
——— X. of Sweden, passes his army over the Little Belt, on the ice, 477.
Chios, See *Scio*.
Clare, Earl of, character of, 72.
Clarendon, Earl of, his conduct examined, respecting his being accessary to the receipt by Charles II. of money from Louis XIV., 380.
Clergy, English, charged with not supporting their own order, 217.
Climate, of Spanish America, its dangerous qualities, 49.
Cobbett, W., his political addresses imitated, 291.
Coins, antient Greek, described, 189, 190.
——, of Alexander the Great, of Edessa, of Samaria, &c. &c. account of, 396.
——, royal, of England, examination of, by the trial of the Pix, 394.

Colo-

INDEX.

Coker, Mr., his observations on the Bible-Society, 323.
Coleridge, Mr., his *supposed* Playhouse musings, 294.
Colman, Mr., his paper on diminutive stature, 248.
———, Mr., jun. his *factitious* Drury-lane address, 297.
Combe, Mr., his remarks on the inscription on the Rosetta-stone, 411.
Common Sense, extract from that work, 247.
Conscience, struggles of, a poetic tale, 361.
———, rights of, maintained, 447.
Conscription, in France, its severe and baneful operation, 521.
Constantinople, account of, 2. Its splendor exaggerated, 6.
——— horrors of its capture, as described by Cardinal Isidore, remarks on, 9. Its illuminations depreciated, 6. Defended, 8.
Conversation and society, comparative view of the state of, among the antients and at Paris, 506.
——— ———, powers of the French in that art, and obs. on the several writers on it, 499—508.
Copenhagen, description of, 172. Our attack on, reprobated by Mr. Windham, 231.
Coulomb, M., eulogy of, 537.
Crabbe, Rev G., his poetical style burlesqued, 297.
Customs, laws of, specified in several instances, 100, 101.
Cuthbert, St., legend concerning his body, 190.
Cuvier, M., his eulogy of J. M. Cels, 535. Of Michael Adanson, 536.

D

Dalecarlia, account of that province and the people, 176.
Date, antient, at Colchester, obs. on, 400.
Deism, Revelation, the Resurrection, &c. obs. on, 143—150.
Delambre, M., his eulogy of M. Brisson, 537. Of M. Coulomb, *ib.*
Derbyshire, that county described, with reference to its mineralogy and agriculture, 151—160.
Djezzar, Pacha, anecdotes and character of, 117.
Dolomieu, M., eulogy of, 535.
Dress, remarks on, 247.
Duteil, M., his treatise on the formations of infantry, 311.

E

Edward I., roll of his expences at Rhuddlan Castle, 193.
——— IV., letter from, to Mr. Stoner, 188.
Eggs, butter, and milk, interdicted as *three poisons*, to persons who visit the Grecian isles, 133.
Elijah, ascent of, attempt to explain that miraculous representation, 146. *note.*
Ellis, Mr, his extracts from Hardyng's Chronicle, 197.
Eloisa, New, remarks on, by Miss Seward, 28.
Erving, Mr., American envoy to Denmark, his account of Danish captures of American vessels, 286.
Escutcheons, armorial, chronological obs. on their forms, 400.
Eyam, that village depopulated by the plague in 1666, 29. Re-appearance of infection from remnants of old clothes dug up in 1757, 30. Description of, 30.

F

Farina of wheat, barley, and beans, experiments on, 540.
Fermentation, experiments on, 542.
Fever, yellow, its prevalence in South America, 49. Anecdote of, 50.
Fitzgerald, Mr., humorous imitation of his poetical compositions. 289.
Fitzwilliam, Earl, his appointment as Viceroy of Ireland loudly hailed, 66. His speedy recall lamented, 67.
Fleas, proverbially said to hold

their court in Tiberias, a town of the Holy-Land, 130.
Flood, Mr., classically and sarcastically addressed, on his return to the benches of the Opposition, 72.
Flour, for bread, mode of making it at Nazareth, 120.
Fourcroy and *Vauquelin*, M. M., on the cerealia and leguminous seeds, 540.
Fox, Mr., his letter to Lord Charlemont, and Lord C.'s reply, 57. His History of James II. vindicated, 364. 382.
France, details and obs. respecting her present revenue, 515. Her military force, 521. Her general resources, 525. Produce of, mineral, vegetable, and animal, 529.
Frederick, King of Prussia, his brutal treatment of his daughter, and of his son, afterward Frederick the Great, 73—86. Character of the latter, by M. Supperville, 85. Heroic death of the former, 84.
——— the Great, his cautious and successful interference respecting the succession of Bavaria, 508. His letter to the Duchess Clementina, 512.
Friendship, See *Love*.

G

Gargarus, Mount, noble prospect from its summit, 15.
Garrulous man, See *Talker*.
Gem, antique Persian, acc. of, 197.
Germination, experiments on, 542.
Gold and *Silver*, quantity of, annually extracted from the mines of South America, 42.
Gonzalo, brother of Pizarro, his expedition in search of El Dorado, or the Golden Country, 339.
Grattan, Mr., his acquirement and loss of popularity in Ireland, 58, 59.
Greatheed, Mr., on the origin of the inhabitants of the British Isles, 194.
Greece, modern, remarks on its wines, monuments, and people, 19.
Guenard, Father, on pulpit-eloquence, 451.
Guernsey, laws of customs in, 101.
Gustavus III. of Sweden, his patronage of science, 175 His errors in government, 178. His extraordinary clemency towards his murderers, 179.

H

Hall, Mr., on the growth and management of Merino wool, 321.
Hamburgh, particulars respecting, 169, 170. Origin and rules of its bank, 171.
Hamilton, Mr., on the *Ægyptian* Papyrus, 396.
Hans Stade, his sufferings among the natives of Brazil, 344.
Hardyng's Chronicle, extracts from, 197.
Hatters, on diseases of, 540.
Hellespont, crossed by swimming, by modern travellers, 10.
Henry IV., defiance sent to by the insurgent lords, 197.
——VI., copies of three petitions to, 188.
—— VIII., original letters and orders of, 399.
Heyne, Prof., his Latin version of the inscription on the Rosetta-stone, 409. His annotations, 410. On the 4th Eclogue of Virgil, 421.
Highlanders, essays on the language and superstitions of, 251—258.
Hill, Sir John, remarks on his *Inspector*, 248.
Hinton, Mr., his defence of the Bible-Society, 324.
Hofenfels, M., the minister of the Elector of Bavaria, his patriotic and honest conduct, 511.
Holidays, restriction of, at the Custom-House, 101.
Holy-Land, various towns and objects in, described by Dr. Clarke, 117—130.

Homer,

INDEX.

Homer, his description respecting Troy established by recent observations, in several points, 17.

Horses, an important article of commerce in Spanish America, 45.

Hough, Bp., his respectable character and laudable firmness in opposing the unjust pretensions of James II., 134—140.

Howes, Mr., on a Greek coin of Lybia, 190.

Hume, Sir Patrick, his conduct in the Duke of Monmouth's rebellion examined by Mr. Fox, defended by Mr. Rose, and farther discussed by Serjeant Heywood, 377.

I & J

Jaffa, improbability of the story of the massacre there, by order of Bonaparte, farther evinced, 129. *note.*

James II., the question of his hostility to the liberty or to the religion of this country agitated by Mr. Fox, Mr. Rose, and Serjeant Heywood, 367. Obs. on his character, by the latter, 370. His conversion to popery, *ib.* His unjust interference in the election of president of Magdalen College successfully opposed, 134.

Iberians, not Celts, supposed to have been the original inhabitants of the British isles, 194.

Ida, Mount, Dr. Clarke's visit to, 14.

Jefferson, President, character and government of, 262.

Jerusalem, account of, as visited by Dr. Clarke, 122.

Illingworth, Mr., his copy of the ceremonial of Queen Catherine's funeral, 192. Of a libel against Archbishop Neville, 193.

Illuminations at Constantinople, depreciated, 6. Defended, 8.

Impressment of American seamen, See *America*.

Infantry and Cavalry, observations on the superiority of the one force over the other, 311. Mode of resistance of the former against the latter, 312—318.

Inspector, by Sir John Hill, remarks on, 248.

Institute, National, of France, said to have been ordered to discontinue their labours in the classes of *Literature* and the *Moral Sciences*, 534.

Intestines, wounds of, obs. on the cure of, 198—203.

John, St., account of an antient MS. of his Gospel, 190.

Joppa, See *Jaffa*.

Josephinia, a new genus of plants, so named in honour of the *ci-devant* Empress of France, 539.

Josephus, his supposed allusion to our Saviour disputed, 146.

Ireland, view of the political state of, during the life of Lord Charlemont, 54—72. Present state of the Custom-duties with respect to, 100.

Isaachson, Mr., American consul at Christiansand, his exemplary conduct, 287.

Isidore, Cardinal, remarks on his account of the capture of Constantinople, 9.

Italians, account of their favorite preachers and mode of preaching, 462—466.

Judah, Kings of, description of their sepulchres, 126.

K

Katt, M., the confidential friend of Frederick the Great when Prince Royal of Prussia, barbarous execution of, 79.

Kemp, Dr. Van der, sketch of his life, and of his success as a missionary, 221.

King, Mr. Rufus, his correspondence on impressing American seamen, 272. Remarkable statement on this subject, *ib.*—273.

L

La Bruyère compared with Theophrastus, 500. *Character* of his "*Characters*," 501. 507.

Lacé-

INDEX.

Lacépède, M., his eulogy of Dolomieu, 535.
Law, criminal, of this country, satirized in the dying speech of a murderer and robber, 243.
Leander, his swimming exploits rivalled by English travellers, 10.
Leicester, Earl of, a night-gown for, ordered by Queen Elizabeth, 194.
Lévèque, M., on tides in different harbours, 538.
Lewis, Mr. M. G., his supposed address for the opening of Drury-Lane Theatre, 294.
Love and *Friendship*, Miss Seward's remarks on, 27.
Lysons, Mr., his copy of a letter from Edward IV., 188. Of three petitions to Henry VI., *ib.* His communication of a roll of the expences of Edward I. at Rhuddlan Castle, 193. His inventory of articles delivered out of the Tower, *temp.* Henry VI., 196. His account of Roman antiquities at Caerhun, *ib.* His communication of M. d'Aguillon's memoir on a Roman aqueduct, 401.

M

Madison, Pres. charges against, by the ex-secretary Smith, 262.
Magdeburgh, horrid picture of distress at, after the battle of Jena, 169.
Malcolm, Mr., on a survey of the priory of St. Helen's, 192.
Malt, its superior saccharine product, compared with treacle, sugar, and honey, 219.
Manilius, that author brought to elucidate the fourth Eclogue of Virgil, 419.
Manufactures, of New Spain, account of, 42. Those of French cloth have the preference over English at Cairo, 425.
Manuscripts, numerous, for sale at Constantinople, 7.
Martin, Harry, anecdote of him and of General Monk, 366.
Massillon, examples of the *courtliness* of his sacred oratory, 469.
Mauritius, account of the conquest of, &c. 428—431.
Mercury, consumed in the mines of New Spain, 40.
Merino wool, obs. on, 321.
Meteoric stones, which fell in Normandy, account of, 537.
Milner, Rev. J., on a MS. of St. John's Gospel, 190.
Milt-like-tumour, of the mucous membrane of the alimentary canal, description of, 309.
Milton, compared with Shakspeare, 29.
Mines, of New-Spain, account of, 35. Compared with those of Europe, 37. Produce of, 41.
Mining-laws, obs. on, 158.
Moira, Earl of, characterized by Lord Charlemont as a speaker in the Irish House of Lords, 72.
Monk, General, his character investigated by Mr. Fox, Mr. Rose, and Serjeant Heywood, 366.
Moore, Mr., suppositious poetical address by, 292.
Morning-Post, the style of that paper ludicrously imitated, 296.

N

Napolose, description of that town, 121.
Nazareth, visit to, 120. Mode of making flour there, *ib.*
Negroes in Jamaica, laws respecting, 439.
Neville, Archbishop, copy of a libel against, 193.

O

Octavius, See *Augustus*.
Olives, Mount of, described by Dr. Clarke, 125.
Ord, Mr., his copies of curious writs of privy seal, 194.
Orders in Council, the cause of the loss of the American market for rum, 440.
Orellana, his expedition to the river Amazons, 340.

P

Papyrus, account of, 396.
Patras, a poetic tale, 357.

Pain-

INDEX.

Periodical Essays, remarks on their popularity and decline, 240.
Peter the Great, his grant of immunity to the first vessel which arrived at Petersburgh, 481.
Phthas, account of that deity, 494.
Pickering, Mr., some account of, 260. His dismission from the office of Secretary of State, 261
Pinkney, Mr., his correspondence with Mr. Smith, and with Marquis Wellesley, 278. 280. 284. 285.
Pix, trial by, account of, 394.
Plague, its ravages in the village of Eyam in 1666, 29. Renewal of infection in 1757, 30.
Plain Dealer. extract from, 243.
Plants, See *Ventenat*.
Plate, silver, quantity of, in the state-rooms at Berlin, 82.
Plus and *minus*, obs. on, 205.
Plutarch, obs. on his treatise on the art of hearing, 501.
Population of New Spain, 51. Of the whole American continent, 52.
Prussia, Princess Royal of, her account of the domestic manners of that court, 73—86.
Ptolemaic dynasty in Ægypt, account of its several princes, 496.
Pulpit-eloquence, observations on, 449—470.

R

Raleigh, Sir Walter, his account of his voyage to Guiana, 399.
Repton, Mr., on an antient date at Colchester, 400.
Revenue of New Spain, 51. Of the whole Spanish monarchy, 52.
Rhodes, salubrity of, 18.
Rivers, and *Roads*, in New Spain, described, 47.
Robertson, Dr., his history of America impeached, 350.
Rockingham, Marquis of, his letter to Lord Charlemont, 57.
Rose, Mr., his attack on Mr. Fox's History repelled, 364—382. His own inaccuracy, 379.
Rosetta-stone, account of, 402.
Ruding, Mr., on the Pix, 394.
Rum, the American market for, lost to this country, 440.
Rumford, Count, on the temperature of water, 539.
Russia, remarks on, and on the people, 109. Ambassador from to Queen Eliz. received with extraordinary distinction, 479.

S

St. Helen's Priory, survey of, 192.
Saville, Rev. Mr., epitaph on, 32.
Scamander, observations on the source of that river, 12. 16.
Scio, island of, described, 18.
Scott, Walter, burlesque imitation of his poems, 293.
Sea-side, elegy at, 31.
Seeds, leguminous, exper. on, 540.
Segneri, an Italian preacher, account of, 462.
Sepulchres of the Kings of Judah, description of, 126.
———, monolithal, conjecture respecting, 127.
Seraglio, description of, 3.
Seward, Miss, particulars of her life, &c., 21—34.
Sibyls, prophecies of, rem. on, 421.
Sichem, See *Napolose*.
Smith, Mr., late American secretary of state, his charges against President Madison, 262. His correspondence with Mr. Pinkney, 277, 280, 284, 285.
Soil, of Derbyshire, obs. on, 153.
Song, by Miss Seward, 31.
Sound, passage of by water, remarkable instance of, 113.
——, *the*, dues of vessels passing through into the Baltic, 480. See also *Baltic*.
Southey, Mr., his supposed address at Drury-lane Theatre, 292.
Spain, New, its mines, manufactures, &c. 34—54.
Spectator, obs. on that admired work, 181. 241.
Speech, at the gallows, of a man convicted of murder, 243.
Spencer, Mr., his poetry imitated, 294.
Spermaceti-fishery, in Spanish America, account of, 45.

Springs,

INDEX.

Springs, of Bonarbaby, 13.
Statues, diminutive, humorous paper on, 248.
Stone, Rev. F., his copies of curious antient papers, 399.
Stone, antient, at Rosetta, account of, 402.
Stones, meteoric, in Normandy, 537.
Sultanas, of the present Grand Signor, description of, 5.
Surnames, on the origin of, 244.
Swan-hopping, that vulgar expression corrected, 396.
Swan with two necks, explanation of that corrupt denomination, 394.
Swans, ordinances respecting, 393.
Sweden, particulars rel. to and its inhabitants, 174—180.

T

Talker, great, poetically delineated, 504. See *Conversation*.
Tarillon, obs. on his poem, 502.
Tatary, the right name of that country, 492.
Taxes, in France, amount of, 518.
Tenon, M., on diseases of hatters, 540. On the uterus, *ib.*
Tetradracm, silver, account of, 197.
Theophrastus compared with La Bruyère, 500. Obs. on, 506.
Tiberius, visit to that town, 121. The royal residence of fleas, 130.
Tides, in different harbours of France, observations on, 538.
Torrigiano, Peter, his monument to Henry VII., 194.
Tower, articles delivered out of, *temp.* Henry VI. 196.
Trojan horse, explained, 495.
Troy, plain of, account of, 10. 17.
Trunk-maker, celebrated by Addison, supposed letter from, 245.
Tupinambas, a race of savages, character of, 349.
Turner, General, on the Rosetta-stone, 402.

U & V

Vauquelin, See *Fourcroy*.
Ventenat, M., on new plants, 538.
Virgil, fourth Eclogue of, its object and purport explained, 413.
Volunteers, institution of that body, in Ireland, 55.
Upsala, account of, 177.
Uterus, See *Tenon*.

W

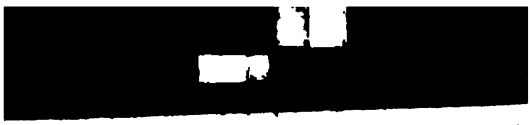
Wages, of manufacturers, impolicy of laws for regulating, 426.
Wales, Prince of, his reception of the Irish deputation, 61.
Walford, Mr., on the situation of Camulodunum, 198.
Walpole, Mr., his notes to Dr. Clarke's travels, 1, 17. 19.
Water, on the temperature of, 539.
Wellesley, Marquis, his correspondence with Messrs. Pinkney, Smith, &c. 278, 281.
West India planters, their ruinous situation, 438—441.
Weston, Rev. S., on unpublished Greek coins, 189. On an antique Persian Gem, 197. On a silver tetradracm, *ib.* On corrupt terms respecting swans, 394. On antique coins, 397. His translation of the inscription on the Rosetta-stone, 406.
Wheat, experiments on, 540.
Wheel-animal, account of, 489.
Whig-Club, in Dublin, praised by Mr. Burke, 63.
Whitburst, Mr., criticism on a passage in his "Inquiry concerning the Earth," 155.
Widow, a poetic tale, 361.
Windham, Mr., particulars of his life, 225—239.
Wool, See *Hall*.
Wordsworth, Mr., his poetry satirically imitated, 290.
Writs of privy seal, *temp.* Queens Mary and Eliz. 194.

Y

Yellow-Fever, See *Fever*.

END OF VOL. LXIX. OF THE NEW SERIES.

Strahan and Preston,
Printers-Street, London.



Stanford University Libraries
3 6105 008 492 675

DATE DUE

STANFORD UNIVERSITY LIBRARIES
STANFORD, CALIFORNIA 94305-6004